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Volume XV. Number 18

EDWARD T. DEVINE
New York

CHARITIES
and The Commons

GRAHAM TAYLOR
Chicago

FEBRUARY 3, 1906

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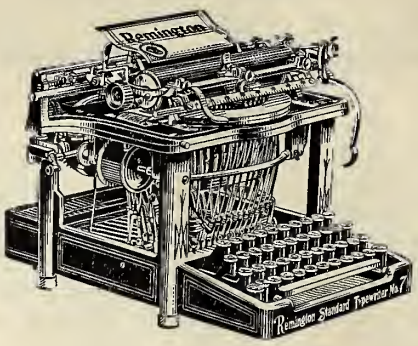

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and The Commons

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New York

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Washington as a Standard City.

The president advocated a model city in his message. Washington people put forward bills to better housing and health conditions, to provide for compulsory education, to prohibit child labor, to prevent family desertion, to organize juvenile courts, to do other things for the welfare of the District of Columbia which their own insight, and experience drawn from the most progressive commonwealths in the Union, showed to be socially desirable.

But when Congress adjourned last spring these plans had all gone by default. The session had been a short one—yet long enough to show that indifference of about the bulk and shapeliness of the Washington monument had been the chief obstacle to success. The Washington monument has a stone from every state in the Union. That was true of this indifference. There was the congressional indifference which let the pique of a far western senator block the most important of the health measures. And there was the indifference of many Washington people to the real life of their community in leaving to a small group of men and women the work of bringing about improvement.

Before it was even known that the defeat was complete, beginnings were made in preparation for a more determined and widespread fight for a better Washington. This has become a forceful movement to place Washington in a position of leadership as an urban community—to ultimately make the national capital in social and economic environment, as well as in civic beauty, a standard to which other American cities may look to attain.

To this end new and far-sighted measures will come before the present Congress. The commissioners will have behind them an informed local public opinion. To this end many bodies are co-operating—notably the Associated Charities, whose secretary, Charles F. Weller, has given up a large part of his time during the past ten months to an investigation of the conditions in the shacks and tenements of Washington's side streets and hidden alleys. To this end the Publication Committee of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS is co-operating as a piece of work preeminently part of its national function. Our March magazine number will be given up to the situation in the capital city. To this end the readers and organizations reached by CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS will be asked to co-operate in interesting their senators and congressmen.

Further, President Roosevelt proposes to back up substantially his recommendation of a year ago that Washington should become a model city. Announcement can be made that he has asked James B. Reynolds to spend two or three months in Washington investigating conditions in the city in relation to all the departments which touch the welfare and social affairs of the people, and to make recommendations to him as result. Mr. Reynolds is equipped for the task through his experience as former head-worker of the University Settlement, New York, and as secretary to the mayor under the progressive Low administration.

The Social Settlement Movement

Beginning in the March Magazine Number of Charities and The Commons

After scarcely twenty years of life and labor in the cities of our own country and only a little longer period in England—the land of its birth—the social settlement movement has spread beyond the most far-sighted dreams of its founders and with varied expressions and outworkings. Now is a good time for the settlement movement to take "account of stock"—to find out what it is doing, what it all means, and to what it may lead. Accordingly, the co-operation characteristic of their craft makes possible our publication of a series of articles from some of the men and women foremost in this field of social work:

SAMUEL A. BARNETT, the first and only warden of Toynbee Hall, East London, who for more than thirty years has done more than any one else to initiate, set the type and maintain the standard of settlement service. Canon Barnett promises an article on *Education by Permeation*—a theme which breathes of his ideal and work.

JANE ADDAMS, of Hull House, Chicago, whose name stands for the very essence of the settlement spirit, will write on *The Settlement and the Art of Life.*

MARY KINGSBURY SIMKHOVITCH, of Greenwich House, New York city, is to answer the question *Is the Settlement an Institution?*

STARR CADWALLADER, formerly of Goodrich House, Cleveland, and later superintendent of the Cleveland public school system, will discuss *Points of Contact Between the Settlement and the Public Schools.*

MARY E. McDOWELL, of the University of Chicago Settlement, who took an active interest in the great Chicago Stock Yards' strike of 1904, will contribute an article on *The Settlement and Trade Unionism.*

ROBERT A. WOODS, of South End House, Boston, whose work in that city has been most influential for the betterment of civic conditions, will raise the question, *Shall Settlement Houses Be Political?*

RAYMOND ROBINS, of Northwestern University Settlement, Chicago, who, on the other hand, has gone into the struggle of ward politics in the successful efforts to regenerate Chicago's city council, will tell something of his experience. His topic will be *The Settlement and Local Politics.*

ALICE HAMILTON will write upon *The Settlement and the Public Health.* Dr. Hamilton took part in the investigation made by Hull House as to the causes of an epidemic of typhoid fever—an investigation which brought about an upheaval in Chicago's sanitary inspection bureau.

JOHN PALMER GAVIT, formerly of Chicago Commons, the first editor of *The Commons,* whose writings in this periodical attracted wide attention because of their earnest message and vivid, forceful style, will write on *The Social Settlement—A Form of Protest.*

FLORENCE KELLEY, long a resident at Hull House, Chicago, and the Nurses' Settlement, New York, and secretary of the National Consumers' League, will discuss *The Settlement and Lost Opportunities.*

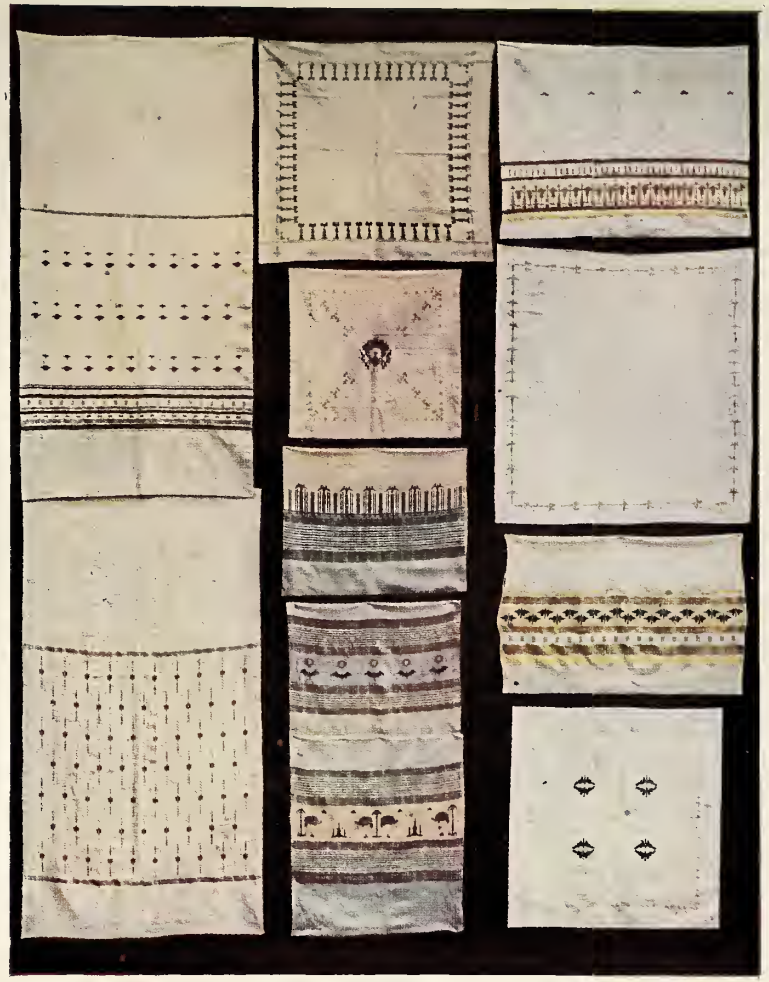
ANNA NICHOLES, of Neighborhood House, Chicago, will tell of *The Settlement and the Industrial Conditions of Women and Children.*

ELSIE CLEWS PARSONS, whose articles in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS on "The Social Settlement and the Future," and "The division of Labor in the Tenement House," have aroused much discussion among settlement folk, will elaborate the central thought of both these articles under the title *A New Field for Settlement Workers.*

HENRY W. THURSTON, chief probation officer of the Chicago Juvenile Court, will outline ways of co-operation in helping to make better citizens and neighbors out of delinquent boys and girls. Mr. Thurston's article will appear under the caption *The Juvenile Court and the Settlement.*

Announcement of additional contributions from American and European writers may be expected as the series develops. The series will be started in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for March, by

GRAHAM TAYLOR, of Chicago Commons, who will write a general article, introductory to the series, on *Whither the Settlement Movement Tends.*



Totally and partially blind men and women, under the supervision of a seeing designer, made the originals of the above rugs, curtains, screen panels, table and pillow covers, at the Experiment Station for the Trade Training of the Blind, Boston, Mass.

CHARITIES
and The Commons

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Unemployment. The Blind. The Seeing.

It was a blind girl who led her seeing friends from out the black fall of Pompeii. Whatever their titles may be, the principal articles in this number have to do with employment. And in the spirit and methods brought to bear in seeking to solve the problem of the laborless adult blind there is much that is suggestive for those facing the larger problems of industrial non-employment, such as exist in London. They are both situations of social and economic mal-adjustment. The question raises itself: Has not the English public gone too far in classing all unemployed alike—as in the case of classing all blind alike. In so far as the ranks of the out-of-work are recruited by the anti-social products of an outworn prison system; from hospitals, which turn convalescents, but not wage-earners loose upon the community; from a school system which educates unskilled clerks, rather than potential craftsmen; from factory practices, which work boys in what have been called "dead-end" occupations and turn them adrift stunted, untrained, at eighteen—the situation seems to demand an overhauling of these social agencies, which will tend to get rid of such factors, and leave the underlying industrial problem to be solved unencumbered. The handicapped employment bureau planned in New York and the Federal Children's Bureau are two concrete forward steps in this field in America.

The significant fact in the London situation is not that a given number of men are parading the streets out of work; but that their presence means a dragging down of standards of wages and living throughout the working population. The significant fact is not that radical men are demanding reform in the name of a "right to work," which others deny, but that a generation of children of the workless is growing up, for better or worse. Wholesale relief works may, or may not, be on a par with the dock-distribution of gold to the blind in New York, but certain it is that there is need for as thorough-going a practical program to reach the more fundamental causes of distress, as is put forward, in their much lesser field, by the commissions for the blind.

The Course of Work for the Blind in this Country.

Those interested in the blind have looked forward to the report which has just been submitted by the Massachusetts Commission for Investigating the Conditions and Needs of the Blind. Both New York and Massachusetts appointed commissions for this purpose in 1903 and it is significant that the recommendation of these two bodies have so many points in common. For the first time the American public has officially learned that the large majority of the blind are not those of school age —in fact that seventy-five per cent of those over twenty, the usual age limit of admission to the existing schools, lose their sight in adult life and that these men and women to a very great extent have as yet no opportunities for industrial training. To utilize the neglected productive capacity of this large body of the population and to conserve those equally precious elements of character inherent in a self-reliant people, is a work to challenge the most resourceful social statesmanship.

The Massachusetts commission was composed of three people who, previous to their appointment, had no particular interest in the subject and their views may be accepted as free from prejudice. The

chairman of the committee was Dr. E. M. Hartwell, statistician of the city of Boston; associated with him were Miss May Irwin, dean of Radcliffe College, and a well-known Boston lawyer, Alpheus Hardy, chairman of the trustees of Wellesley College.

About seventy-five years ago the first work for the blind in the United States was started in Boston, New York and Philadelphia. After the three institutions became firmly established in these cities, others were instituted, so that to-day the children of practically every state in the union are provided for. Dr. Howe, the great pioneer in this work, clearly saw that there were two problems in helping the blind—the one distinctly scholastic and the other industrial. Any one wishing a comprehensive view of the problem has but to study carefully the early reports of the Boston institution. To-day we still have in the mattress shop, started by Dr. Howe, one of the best examples of a successful industry for the blind. Unfortunately, the general public, blinded by their wonder at the fact that the blind can even be taught to read and write, failed to uphold the early superintendents in their efforts to satisfactorily solve the industrial problem. As a result the line of least resistance was followed and to-day we have 4,500 children being educated and very few men or women over twenty years of age receiving trade training. This state of affairs has, largely as a result of the cry of the blind themselves, become more and more clearly recognized, culminating in the appointment of such commissions as have recently served in New York and Massachusetts. The literature of the movement is not as yet large. Stirring but often conflicting inspiration is being drawn from such varied sources as the scholarly interpretation of educational work for the defective by Mr. Anagnos, of Perkins' Institute, and the vigorous gospel of industrial training preached at Hampton and Tuskegee. A meeting of industrial workers with the blind was held last year in Saginaw, Mich., and the proceedings are now in press at the Connecticut Institution for the Blind. It is to this new field of discussion that a large part of this issue of Charities and The Commons is given over, without any attempt in its limited space to review the marvelous technical development of scholastic training for the young blind, to which American institutional educators have contributed so largely.

The Present Movement.

These things may be said to be significant of the present phase of the movement for the adult blind:—A first step is a demand for facts—to find out who the blind are, their age, the age when they become blind; therefore, the work of state commissions and the advocacy of permanent registries. To paraphrase the slang of an old song, it is too often true that all blind look alike to the seeing. It is these investigations which are showing that the presence of blindness is not a mark which sets off a man irretrievable from his fellows; that the same needs which characterize different classes of the seeing—the vigorous, the thriftless, the industrious, the anaemic, are to be found among them; and that from the standpoint of the community the significant fact is not lack of sight—which in an intellectual and æsthetic sense can be largely overcome by the methods of the schools—but their insulation as members of economic society. Therefore, comes the second step, a demand that the scholastic institutions dealing with blind youths prepare them more concretely for after life. The third step is a demand that agencies be devised to train industrially those who become blind after maturity—not, in most cases, as permanent industrial backwater groups where the inefficient may be cared for because of their sightlessness—but as way stations through which the trained blind may gain a footing in the community life of their generation.

In this number, therefore, we have in the articles by Mr. Allen, Miss Wright, Mr. Burritt, Mr. Forbes, and in the abstract of the report of the Massachusetts commission, a survey of the blind as found in the community; the detailed work being carried on in six pioneer institutions devised to meet their needs is set forth in succeeding articles, and Dr. Lewis and Mr. Campbell have outlined broad schemes by which the situation may be hoped to be permanently ameliorated.

It will be seen, therefore, that to the general public, one of the most urgent ap-

peals is for a new attitude toward the blind. It is not the old attitude of sentimental doles coupled with exclusion of the blind from practical affairs. It is an attitude of sanity and fellowship, coupled with a determination to make sure of the ground upon which the problem must be worked through. That attitude can best be stated in these words of a superintendent of one of the most progressive American institutions in this field:

Every one realizes the blessing of sight to such an extent that he is scarcely able to think rationally of blindness. Blindness is the best qualification for a street beggar; the bowels of the passer-by compassionates at once in metallic pity.

We who are surrounded by the blind do not fail to realize some of the terrible consequences of the affliction; we never become hardened to the condition, but, as physicians do, direct our sympathy into channels that are practical. We aid the blind constantly; every day brings to our attention one or more instances of the adult who is immediately benefited by enpassionates at once in metallic pity.
stration.

My interest in the question of the adult blind is neither sentimental nor pathological, but simply sociological. I might tell you of old men and women in pitiable plight, but they are often over eighty years old and would be nearly as badly off with their sight; again of a graduate of a school for the blind who may have been afforded the utmost advantages the school can give and yet be unable to support himself, but he is likely to be diseased in body or perverted in mind or to have defects of character which would make his success impossible if he had the best of sight. I am not ready to generalize or to give an answer to the problem until I know all the elements of it. It is like a question in proportion with many terms, the distress of individuals being but one term. I have great fear of movements started by those whose eyes are too full of tears for perfect vision or whose hearts are so large as to take all the blood which belongs to both the heart and head.

Helen Keller's Plea for the Blind.

The following sentences are taken from letters which Helen Keller wrote in appealing to the public to help the blind to help themselves in Maine and Massachusetts:

[From a letter to the Boston *Evening Transcript*, November 11, 1905.]

Imagine the despair and impotence that overwhelm one stricken blind. To the active man light is life itself. In the light he has learned his trade. He has known his family and his friends by the light that shines upon their faces. In the light he has read his books and newspapers, taken his pleasure, walked abroad with his children and gone forth unto his work unafraid, unaided. Blindness obliterates all that he has known. The world is a desert, without path or horizon or landmark, and he will never find his way back to work and the active joy of life unless his fellow men lead him kindly by the hand and guide his groping feet. He must begin life all over again, and he needs assistance at the start. He needs to relearn to use his hands, for he must use them without his eyes. I pray generous citizens to hear the cry of the blind in the wilderness: "Give us opportunity to work, that we may feed, clothe and shelter ourselves."

[From a letter to the legislative committee on public charities of the Maine legislature.]

Opportunity to work is what we ask, not charity. The dependent, helpless condition of the blind is their greatest misery. Man is constituted an active being. To get the most out of life he must work. In work lies his highest dignity and his happiness. The man who loses his sight does not lose the rest of his faculties, his desires, his nature. His mind and his heart remain unchanged. Yet suddenly, against his will, contrary to his nature, he is plunged in idleness. He finds himself dependent, helpless. He has known the necessity and the joy of work. He has felt the satisfaction of supporting himself and others. His has been the upright strength of the American citizen who asks of his fellow man no boon, except a fair chance. An accident has robbed him of his equality among men. Now we ask the state to restore that equality, to correct, as far as may be, the defect of nature, to give each back to the blind man his independence and usefulness. We know from experience that the blind can be made self-supporting. To assist the blind to attain self-competence not only endows them with happiness, but relieves the state of the burden of their idleness. Contrast the beggar at the street corner with the self-supporting, self-respecting blind citizen, and ask if the transformation from one to the other is not a gain to you and to me as well as a veritable re-creation for him.

In the January 4 issue of the *Youth's Companion,* Miss Keller contributed an article, well worth reading, entitled *What the Blind Can Do,* which she concludes with:

There is no law on the statute books compelling people to move up closer on the bench of life to make room for a blind brother; but there is a divine law written on the hearts of men constraining them to make a place for him, not only because he is unfortunate, but also because it is his right as a human being to share God's great-

est gift, the privilege of man to go forth unto his work.

New York Institutions For the Blind.

While the purposes of this number have to deal primarily with the needs and treatment of the adult blind—for the most part those who become blind after childhood—the question of preparatory training of those blind from childhood is inevitably raised so soon as these become members of the community. It is not within the scope of this number to review institutional provision for this class throughout the country, but a consideration of one or two phases of the New York situation will be suggestive. From the fact that along certain educational lines the New York City Institution for the Blind has maintained a position of leadership under Dr. Watt, a discussion of these phases cannot be construed as questioning the high standing of the general work of the institution.

In New York city most of the instruction of the blind is given at this school for the blind and at the Home for the Blind. The former institution has recently published its sixty-sixth report, and the home has published its thirty-sixth. These two institutions aim to receive, maintain and teach the sightless free of charge. The school affords a training, principally literary or musical, and fits for the regents' admission examinations to college. The home aims to provide a home for the indigent blind "where they may enjoy reasonable comforts and have facilities for earning their livelihood."

Both institutions are situated in fairly congested parts of the city, a fact that limits the opportunities for exercise particularly necessary for the blind, whose habits are sedentary. The school, however, announces its contemplated removal to its property lying between 165th and 168th streets.

While giving full recognition to excellent results obtained by this school in the past, we feel it desirable to raise the question, in view of the proposed change of institutional location, whether the site selected, overlooking the Hudson, will best meet the requirements of a modern school for the blind. If the best development of the blind in study and in self-support will come, as it does with the seeing, from the combination of a healthy mind in a healthy body, it may be questioned whether the proposed site is not so precipitous as to prevent the blind from running, playing games, skating, cycling and living their recreation hours in the open air. That the blind can safely enjoy these pastimes has already been proved.

The detention of the blind within school walls, either because of the absence of facilities for out-of-door exercise, or because the schedule of study hours and recesses will not permit outdoor recreation, is contrary to fundamental hygienic principles. The sightless crave the liberty of movement that the seeing demand as their right in the schools of to-day, and in the deprivation of such exercise lies the constant danger of anæmic constitutions and of irregular and perhaps even of immoral habits.

In view of the statement in the current report of the New York Institution for the Blind that the "space the managers have been able to reserve for the erection of new buildings (on the proposed site) is already much too small, being about one-eighth of the area occupied by the state school at Batavia," it seems desirable to consider carefully the feasibility of securing land somewhere within perhaps twenty miles of New York, and adjacent, of course, to a railroad. The sale of the present property of the school would undoubtedly furnish funds for the erection, upon such a suburban site, of commodious modern buildings, and would provide plenty of room for recreation and physical training. Incidentally, there might be remaining a fund sufficient to provide for the pupils' trips to New York for concerts and the visiting of friends in the city. If the health and joy of the students are matters of primary importance, such a removal to a well-chosen location in the suburbs suggests itself so forcibly that undoubtedly those interested in the training of the blind in New York would gladly learn from the directors of the Institution for the Blind the reasons for the choice of the proposed location upon the steep banks of the Hudson.

Statistics of Graduates.

It seems quite clear that the academic training of the blind at the school is of high quality. The current report of the State Board of Charities' committee on

the blind says that "the experience of the two schools of the blind in this state has been that those who make the best use of the scholastic years are best fitted on graduation to enter into ordinary business competitions and activities, hence the greatest stress is laid on thorough scholastic training; and although the schools find it necessary to furnish a certain amount of industrial drill and trade instruction, this branch of the school work is regarded as of secondary importance."

This is a strong argument for continuing the emphasis upon scholastic training in the schools for the blind. In view of equally strong emphasis in some of the articles in this issue upon the desirability of giving to a large proportion of blind children manual and industrial training to fit them for self-support, statistics might well be published by the New York school in its forthcoming report, indicating, among other facts, the number of graduates engaged in gainful occupations, the hours of work per day or per week, the amount earned per day, week or month, the amount expended by the blind wage-earner and by others in his support, the various occupations engaged in by the graduates, and in general such statistics as would enlighten the community upon the results of academic training of the blind.

If, perhaps, the statements of the committee are based upon opinion, in the absence of definite statistics, then the secondary importance of manual training and industrial training as a means of self-support for the blind has not necessarily been proved. It is, of course, possible also that the manual training taught in the school has been of a nature to fit the students only partially for self-support. The belief is expressed by some who have devoted particular attention to teaching the blind that it is possible to train a large proportion of them to become self-supporting by industrial training, involving a large æsthetic enjoyment.

The committee's report states elsewhere that the "industrial or trade instruction is left largely for the years between twenty-one and thirty, when it usually becomes the major interest." It is not, however, apparent from the report of the committee that there is much opportunity for the industrial training of the blind in the years after graduation from the school, for it is stated that "in the industrial homes there is a comparatively small number of the blind who can be considered fairly desirous of institutional aid. . . .In the institutions the occupations are limited, and even when they (the blind) become expert, do not afford large enough returns to satisfy reasonable desires."

If, therefore, manual and industrial training are considered as of secondary importance in the two schools; if few, moreover, take up industrial training between twenty-one and thirty in the industrial homes where it can supposedly best be taught, and if in those homes it is taught and practiced at a loss, it may be asked what adequate facilities the blind of the state have at present to test the best methods of industrial training as a means of self-support.

The New York Association.

Within a few months there has been formed in New York, the New York Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, an organization which has in part grown out of a movement among a smaller body of women to provide in recent years tickets for recitals and concerts to be distributed to the blind, who, of course, have been most appreciative. The first work of the new association will be a very careful registration of the blind of the city, and definite information will be obtained thereby to throw light upon the important questions of the occupation of the blind mentioned above. A similar registration of the blind is now being made in Massachusetts by the older state association there.

The New York association aims to stimulate among the seeing public interest in the blind of the state, and has announced a large meeting for April, to be held at the Waldorf-Astoria, at which Helen Keller, Joseph Choate and Mark Twain will speak. The association is interested in the development of industrial training in the city and plans to try experimentally new occupations for the blind, and to furnish, so far as possible, opportunity to the blind to sell their output. It aims also to establish friendly

relations with the various schools and homes of the blind throughout the state, and to extend as soon as possible its registration to cover the state. It will also gather information on the care and teaching of the blind, and will present it from time to time to the public. The distribution of tickets to the blind, for recitals and concerts, will also be continued. The president is Dr. Lyman Abbott, and the secretary Miss Winifred Holt, who has been a moving spirit in the founding of the new association.

Federal Penal Legislation.

Two important penal measures are before this session of Congress. The first is a bill introduced by Mr. Fassett, of New York, to revise and amend the United States statutes relating to the commitment of United States prisoners to reformatories of states or territories. At present the United States law provides that when persons are imprisoned in any jail or penitentiary in any state for violation of federal laws, they shall be subject to the same discipline and treatment as prisoners who are sentenced from the state's courts. The object of the bill is to carry out still further the same principle as applied to United States prisoners sent to reformatories. A good many United States prisoners are sent to Elmira and other reformatories. State prisoners are for the most part committed to such institutions under an indeterminate sentence. The length of their sentence depends wholly on their conduct and attainments measured by a system of grades and marks. They are also released on parole when they become eligible. The United States prisoners, on the other hand, do not have the advantage of the stimulus and incentive furnished by the indeterminate sentence, or the advantage of the surveillance which may be exercised when they are out on parole. Such prisoners, therefore, do not fit into the reformatories; it would be a hardship to exclude them because the United States has no reformatories to which they could be sent. It is, therefore, important that the indeterminate sentence should be extended to United States prisoners committed to such reformatories.

Another important measure is an amendment to the census bill providing for the collection of judicial statistics of the United States. As has been pointed out from time to time in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS, no such statistics are now available. There is no authoritative means of telling how many felonies or misdemeanors are committed in the United States or what disposition is made of the offenders. A thorough compilation of statistics showing the age, nativity, parentage, color, sex, occupation and other particulars in relation to offenders is a necessary basis for any deductions in regard to the movement of crime in the United States. Such statistics ought to include police arrests and also the disposition made of the offenders, whether placed on probation or committed to jails, reformatories, or state prisons. They should show, also, the number of persons placed upon parole after the period of imprisonment. Such statistics should be collected on a uniform basis, and if prepared on the same schedules for a number of years would furnish data of the greatest value. Mr. North, the director of the census, has urged the collection of such statistics in his annual report, and appeared in January before the census committee of the house, with Samuel J. Barrows, who represented a committee of the National Prison Association, appointed for this purpose. With but a slight additional appropriation, the work can be begun with the forces of the permanent Census Bureau.

Massachusetts Moves Forward.

Bills have been introduced in the Massachusetts legislature looking to the adoption of modern methods in dealing with juvenile offenders. There are three of these bills. The most important one changes the present system, substitutes the words "delinquent children" for "juvenile offenders," and puts an end to criminal trials for children under 17. Under the proposed new law a child will not be "convicted" of an offence against the criminal laws, but will be "adjudged to be" a delinquent child, to be cared for as a ward of the state in such way as the court may decide.

Ample machinery is provided for carrying out the new plan, especially for keeping out of jail the hundreds of children

and youth who are now sent there because unable to furnish bail.

A second bill provides for the establishment of a juvenile court for the central district of Boston, with separate judges, etc. The Boston school committee has also put in a bill for this purpose.

The third bill gives the larger lower courts authority to appoint additional paid probation officers for work for children, and also unpaid "deputy" probation officers.

These bills have strong support, and their friends are hopeful of success. Massachusetts years ago gave the first impulse to the intelligent treatment of juvenile delinquents, but it has remained for Illinois and Colorado, untrammeled by such fixity of traditions and institutions as the older state, to round out the reform to a more complete and logical development. The juvenile court system is still "in process." That in methods and theory advances are yet to come, there could be no better assurance than the dynamic work of Judge Lindsey, in Denver; Judge Mack and Mr. Thurston, in Chicago; Judge Stubbs, in Indianapolis, and others who could be mentioned. But methods and theory have already advanced to a point where it is sheer provincialism, as in New York city and in Massachusetts, to stick to the spirit or the letter of the older way. For it has been proved, pre-eminently in Baltimore by Judge Heuisler, that the new "idea" may be grafted fundamentally upon the legal system of an older commonwealth.

With Massachusetts bills advanced to take the place of those defeated through conservative opposition a year ago, with the New York probation commission about to report—and may that body be blessed with backbone; with new measures proposed in Michigan to meet the constitutional objections raised successfully against the statutes enacted at the last legislature, and with a new and more adequate bill before Congress affecting the District of Columbia, the year promises to be one of well-marked gains in this field.

California Child Labor Law Sustained.

The energetic enforcement of the new child labor law of California by W. V. Stafford, commissioner of labor of that state, has received encouragement from the Superior Court of San Francisco. Judge Carroll Cook, of this court, has rendered an elaborate opinion sustaining the validity of the law. The decision arises out of habeas corpus proceedings brought in behalf of Captain Henry Webber and Chief Engineer J. M. Spencer, of the steamboat "Dispatch," on which a thirteen-year-old boy (James Mitchell) was killed by an explosion while illegally employed in "scaling" the boiler. Says Judge Carroll Cook:

> The question presented for determination is of great and lasting importance. With opposition from certain interested quarters it is with much labor that measures, such as are here involved, are placed upon the statute books, and when once they are there it should be but for the weightiest constitutional reasons that they be declared void. No one at all familiar with the history of child labor legislation can fail to see at a glance the similarity of the provisions of these measures and the laws of all the progressive states and of the nations of the Old World as well, touching the subjects involved. Always, has it been customary to select certain industries, wherein it appeared to the legislatures there was most need of such legislation, and always such classification has been upheld. Always have there been special classes of children made, which classes, in the mind of the legislators, were laboring under peculiar disabilities, such as orphanage, or illiteracy, and no court has seen fit to question the validity of such classification. Always has there been an attempt on the part of the legislature to suit the means to the end to be accomplished and this has always passed muster with the courts.
>
> No case has been cited where child labor legislation in anywise similar to this under consideration has been declared unconstitutional by any court higher than a police court, in this or in any other state, while the Supreme Court of Massachusetts has upheld a similar statute, even though it went to the length of bringing women under its provisions.
>
> The salutory effect of these laws is unquestionable. All are interested in the care of those who cannot care for themselves, and especially in the education and protection of children, in whom the future hope of our nation lies. Under these circumstances no trivial objection should avail to invalidate so salutory a law.

May the Pennsylvania courts take the same broad, humane and enlightened ground in deciding cases now pending before them!

In the matter of child labor legisla-

tion, it is really the courts of this nation which are on trial and the state constitutions. For, in the long run, courts and constitutions which delayed or prevented the safeguarding of the life, limbs, health, intelligence and welfare of the future citizens of the Republic would have to be fundamentally changed.

Meeting of the Society for Moral Prophylaxis

The February meeting in New York of the Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis will be held Thursday evening, February 8, at the Academy of Medicine, No. 17 West Forty-third street. Colonel Valery Havard, assistant surgeon-general, U. S. A.; Dr. George E. H. Hannan, medical directory, U. S. N.; Dr. Louis F. Seaman, Homer Folks and others will speak, and the session will be one of the most important yet held in furthering this new movement.

The Death of Andrew Elmore

Word comes of the death of Andrew Elmore, of Wisconsin, at the age of 88 years—a pioneer in American philanthropy and one of the founders of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Mr. Elmore is the third ex-president of the conference to die within the year—the others being Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania, and A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin.

From "Lady Bums" to the Ward Grafters.

"It is worth more to its section than a saloon or a jail and costs the community less than either," is the estimate of Anna Freeman Davies, head-worker of the College Settlement of Philadelphia, on the work of Roosevelt House, the branch settlement at 502 South Front street.

The house is in the southwest corner of the Fifth Ward, almost on the river front. Surrounded by an "incredibly varied and floating population, in a section abounding in cheap lodging-houses, saloons and furnished-room houses, it stands against a background of economic and moral depression and depravity." The ward is notorious in politics, malodorous with every form of corruption that society brings upon itself as the curse of ignorance and indifference. Local ideas and practices are illustrated by brief extracts from the settlement note book:—

F's father was arrested for fighting. He gave the "specials" money and they let him go. At second arrest for a similar offence he sends his daughter home to get the money hidden under the bed. She cannot find it. Thereupon he is allowed to go himself to fetch it.

The "cops" are popularly supposed to accept a quarter as drink money for not reporting small fires in a certain manufactory whose insurance rate is affected by the number of fires occurring.

A young man, a Hebrew, was asked to take an assessorship and was plainly told that he must "pad" the lists of voters. "Suppose I get in prison; that can make trouble." "Oh, we can get you out all right. Our friends don't have trouble."

B, nineteen years old, has been voting for two years. O, seventeen, says he guesses there are men who won't sell their votes, but he doesn't know any.

"Further hearings" are a common method of extracting money from ignorant people in police courts. An Italian boy was arrested, charged with stealing from a Hebrew neighbor. At the first hearing the father paid $2.50 as a bail fee. At a second hearing the prosecutor himself grew indignant and withdrew the charge, saying that all that was being done was to extort money from poor people.

Some children detached themselves from a picnic one day, saying that they were going home, where it wasn't so lonesome, down on the dock, playing "Cop and Lady Bum." This favorite game, played with the refinement of the "Lady," is the simulation of drunken disorder by a girl. A soap-box cart—the patrol wagon—clangs around the corner, and the "Lady Bum" is thrust into it amid hostile demonstrations by the bystanders against the police. The resistance of the passenger is often followed by collapse. Her feet cease to beat the air and dangle over the side of the box; her tongue no longer lashes, but lolls from her mouth. She maintains this comatose effect as long as possible, and then yield her place of honor, with reluctance, to th next claimant.

Neighborhood Work and Civic Righteousness.

There is no call for a special advocate to argue the need of "social work" on this river front. The facts shout aloud the proof. It is to inquire, however, whether such a house as this settlement is adapted to the need, whether its methods justify themselves in experience. After three years of strenuous experience and experiment the workers are ready with the fullest belief to uphold the affirmative of this question.

In the November campaign the house was able to serve the city in the Fifth

Ward by furnishing from its residents and in its buildings:

Two pre-election canvassers.
One general utility helper.
The chairman of the Fifth Ward Women's Committee.
Two voters for the right side.
One all-day watcher in a division primed for fraud.
A headquarters and willing workers for the distribution of food to election officers and watchers.
A center immediately and inexpensively available for meetings, etc.
A considerable fund for information, energy and good judgment, stored through months and years of residence, ready for the reform emergency.

"It seems to us," concludes the head-worker, "that the era of better things in civic life has opened in our city. The signs of promise are written large across the darkness of our lingering night, but we are by no means sure that the rising of our sun is to be joyfully brilliant and cloudless. Only the most careless of optimists can even approach this belief. There is long, hard work ahead—work for which there has been scant opening in Philadelphia for nearly half a century. No such house as ours should be closed just as its greatest opportunity dawns. No such house should be hampered and hindered and kept from its best accomplishment by the lack of two or three thousand dollars per year, or by continued difficulty in securing such a sum."

The Woman's Club and the orhouse.

Will Carlton, who in verse has taken his readers "over the hills to the poorhouse" and pictured the life there, is a Michigan man. It is, therefore, of interest to find that the women of the state are beginning to take a practical concern in that humblest and often most neglected of institutions. At the last meeting of the State Federation of Women's Clubs a movement gained headway to secure the co-operation of the local organizations in visiting the county almshouses and in urging the authorities to provide skilled nursing for the aged sick. A thoughtful address was made by the venerable bishop of western Michigan, George D. Gillespie, long the president of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, and this has been published in the Charlotte *Tribune*, of which Mrs. Belle M. Perry, a well-known club woman, is editor. To quote in part:

I can think of many ways in which the health and comfort of the inmates may be secured. Some amusements may be introduced into their lives of heavy monotony, the Thanksgiving and Christmas visit with gifts, the visit of singers who can be gathered in every community, the afternoon reading of some cheery story. Some employment may be encouraged, especially for the women. Let us suppose the visitors to show some of the thoughtfulness they have exercised for an aged friend or relative in their homes. Placing the trained nurse in the poorhouses of the large counties is worthy the strenuous effort which one of your number has made. The inmates of a poorhouse are, almost without exception, in the feebleness of advanced years or in the grasp of some disease. Their maladies are capable of some relief, though only death will be the lasting dismissal. They fall to the charge of the keeper's wife who has neither the skill nor the time to apply it. Generally they are in the care, if care it may be called, of some aged or even imbecile pauper. Here is the real distress of the poorhouse, that which warrants its name. It will be a hard task to win over the superintendents of the poor to the conviction that their house needs a skill that must be purchased with money. Probably their own homes know no such provision for even serious illness. But it must be remembered it is not so many years since, even in some of our best homes, the value of the trained nurse was not appreciated. If in your counties where there is need of such provision, you will show the tact and perseverance that Kalamazoo county has exhibited in the person of the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, I think I can promise you ultimate success.

Taking hold of the Wrong End of the Broom.

While Bishop Gillespie was urgent as to the need for visitation of the poorhouses, supplementing the work of the State Board of Charities, he made it plain that he was far from making a sweeping condemnation of poorhouse superintendents. Of the seventy-five poorhouses of the state, a dozen, he thought, merited utter condemnation. In others, the superintendents are many of them doing a humane work, most of them against many obstacles. Visitation should help surmount these obstacles, but to succeed it must be tactful. His admonitions on this score had the same ring to them to be found in the *Letters from an Old Public Functionary to his Nephew*, which are now being published in CHARI-

TIES AND THE COMMONS and are delighting experienced workers in charity in their homely expression of a knowledge of both the wholesome and whimsical in human nature.

A citizen has a right to visit a poorhouse; but to "examine, criticize and advertize" is likely to invite friction with its management. Or as the bishop put it with dignified courtliness, "especially the wife of the keeper will feel that you are invading her province." And, becoming more concrete, he advised the selection of "women of known tact and prudence . . . who are somewhat familiar with the conditions of humble life," and gently deprecated the enlistment at the start of such as "a lady I knew who expressed her surprise that there should be any starving people, saying: 'I would rather eat bread and butter,'" or the woman who started to improve the homes of the poor and entered with the salutation, "Clean up here, clean up."

These five suggestions he made to intending visitors:

1. On the first visit, however much you may find to criticise, make no suggestions.
2. Meet superintendents and keepers in a candid and friendly spirit. They usually want to do their duty, and they doubtless have many difficulties you do not see. Their hands are generally full, with inadequate help. A critical, suspicious bearing will defeat your purpose to learn facts.
3. Give no encouragement to the inmates to find fault. With exceptions they are generally good grumblers.
4. Be slow to recommend improvements, however glaring may be their necessity. They should come one by one, not in a mass.
5. Let the information gained by your visits be considered as private, and only to be used through carefully considered channels. Use the press for complaints only when you have used all other means of correction.

The American Economic Association Meeting

Henry Raymond Mussey
Bryn Mawr College

A significant change has taken place in economic thought during recent years. Twenty years ago Walker defined economics as "that body of knowledge which relates to wealth;" to-day Fetter makes it "the study of men earning a living." Once the center was wealth, now it is man in relation to wealth. The economist has learned the importance for his science of general social and political conditions; and in defining his own field, has become aware of the unity of the social problem.

The new point of view came out clearly at the recent meeting of the American Economic Association in Baltimore. The men there gathered were evidently interested first of all in contributing something toward a solution of the large problems confronting our democracy; they realized that the basis of those problems is industrial, but that economics alone is incompetent to work out any satisfactory solution to the most of them. Hence there was little logic chopping, little dispute over terms, much debate on vital issues, much discussion of matters that a few years ago would have been considered non-economic.

The retiring president, Professor Taussig, of Harvard University, took for the topic of his annual address, *The Love of Wealth and the Public Service.* The so-called "economic motive," he pointed out, plays a diminishing part in large business affairs. The desire for distinction, for power, for success and for efficiency—all these have become powerful forces in the world of business. Even so careful and conservative a thinker as Professor Taussig recognizes the possibilities of enlisting these new economic motives in the public serviee, of making the new economic man a social servant.

When the association discussed economic theory, it emphasized the necessity of the theorist's placing himself on a firm basis by knowing the facts of human nature and the actual conditions of present industrial, political and social organization. When it talked of labor problems it reasserted the indubitable fact that cold-blooded scientific analysis, untaught by intelligent appreciation and sympathy, is but a blind guide in practical affairs. Always the human interest was uppermost.

Railway rate regulation was the subject of a lively session. Almost every speaker favored some kind of government control. Clearly, the doctrine of *laisser-faire,* the outcome of the old abstract economics, is dead in American thinking to-day. The

economists have abandoned this principle, which has served to shelter so many abuses, and are deciding questions on their merits, not according to any preconceived theory.

The same spirit characterized the debate on municipal ownership. Only once was socialism invoked as a bugaboo, and it met with no response. The question at issue was frankly one of social utility, broadly defined. The business aspect of the problem received the main emphasis; yet the social and ethical questions involved came in for much attention, and no one attempted to deprecate their discussion. Future meetings will see even more attention given to the effects of municipal ownership on public and private morality, on overcrowding, on healthy and happy conditions of life for the mass of urban dwellers. For the economist, as never before, is studying wealth as a means to welfare, he is recognizing that economic and political progress must go hand in hand.

The economic future of the Negro took up the last session of the meeting. Pointing out the danger to the Negro of the competition of Southern European immigrants, and the tendency of the Negroes to economic and social segregation in both city and country, the various speakers indicated clearly enough that social salvation is conditioned on industrial efficiency. In no other session was the relation of economic study to social conditions more clearly evident.

Perhaps the most notable feature of the meeting was the formation of the American Sociological Association, described in a previous issue of CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS. Two years earlier the Political Science Association had been formed by a like process of splitting off from the parent body. It might seem that the Economic Association is narrowing its scope and interest, but exactly the opposite is the truth. The broadening of its horizon has obliged it to divide the field for a more intensive cultivation. Each society draws freely on the resources of the others, and the admirable plan of occasional joint meetings, like that on municipal ownership, serves to show the unity of their problems, as well as to bring their members together.

Taking it altogether the outlook for the study of social science in America was never so bright as at present. Vast social, industrial and political changes are forcing new problems upon us. Bitter experience has made us distrustful of economic and political nostrums, and the reformer must show a reason for the faith that is in him. Facing the stupendous contradiction of a government democratic in form and spirit, and an industrial organization oligarchic in fact, we look for leading and light; the student of social science must furnish it. Imperialism, the trusts, the tariff, railroad rates, political corruption, child labor, tuberculosis, pauperism, preventable crime, the sweatshop, the slum, all are but parts of one great problem, the reconciliation of industrial autocracy with political democracy, the outworking of the possibilities of life in a democratic industrial society. The economist is working at the foundation on which the social reformer must build. The old conflict between them has ended; each has learned to respect the other. Economist, political scientist, sociologist and practical reformer, each may do his part toward that work wherein a more rational social order is slowly evolving. The keenest thought, the wisest and best-directed action are equally necessary; for the work on which we are engaged is the supreme task of democracy, the task of bringing the highest possibilities of life within reach of every one of its children.

China's Commissioners to Representative Governments

Graham Taylor

The mission of the Chinese Imperial Commissioners to this and other countries has as much social significance as it has political and industrial importance. Two commissions are under orders of the emperor and empress dowager to investigate the working of representative constitutional governments and their commercial, social, charitable, reformatory and educational institutions. One of them, under Prince Tsai Chen, is just about to leave China for England and France. The other, under the Viceroys Tuan Fang and Tai-

Tsu, eonsisting of twenty high officials and thirty subordinates, is now at work in Washington after having visited San Franeiseo, the University of Nebraska at Lineoln, Chicago and Pittsburg. Their Chieago sojourn gave such good opportunity for clear insight into the personnel, purpose and method of the eommissioners that it may safely be taken as indieative of the spirit and result of this most remarkable movement of the Chinese government.

The most noteworthy thing about the personnel of the eommission is the appointment of Tuan Fang to be its head. He is a Manchu whose elass distinction and dependenee upon imperial favor render independence rare and almost impossible. And yet when the Chinese government was swept by the Boxer movement into its murderous antagonism to foreigners, Tuan Fang had the eourage, humanity and far-sightedness to disobey the deeree of the empress dowager to kill all of them in his provinee of Shensi. Instead of so doing, he promptly gathered them into his eapital and sent them under strong military proteetion to Hankow, thus saving every life. When told how mueh this aetion was appreeiated in Ameriea, he modestly replied: "It was only my duty to do so." The most prominent members of his suite were educated in this country. One of them took the degrees of bachelor and master of arts at Cornell University, and all are men of liberal eulture and spirit. University degrees are thus supplanting the old examination system in the eivil serviee of China. The influenee of the old literati is passing to the hand of young China, whose reforming spirits reeeive their inspiration and training in the universities of Ameriea and Europe, though strongly influenced by the ideals and aehievements of Japan.

Far above the signifieance of these interesting personalities, yet vitally eonditioned by them, is their eommission to gather the faets and suggestions from the whole world whieh may help China to introduee a eonstitutional form of government. And yet even this momentous mission does not blind the eyes of the commissioners to the equal importanee of their insight into the eommereial, edueational and social institutions of representative governments. Their first half day in Chieago was therefore spent at Cook County Infirmary in careful inspeetion of the cottages, farm work, and hospital for the insane, the dormitories and employment of the poor, and the fresh air treatment of tubereulous patients. The minuteness of their questions and note-taking would have been creditable to those familiar with publie institutions of this kind—as the vieeroys were not. With equal zest and interest they tried to grasp the social-democratic spirit of the settlement residenee and work at Hull House, assuring Miss Addams that her volume on *Demoeracy and Social Ethics* should be translated into Chinese. Their visit to the edueational class-rooms, gymnasium, baths and other departments of the eentral building of the Young Men's Christian Assoeiation also made its distinet impression. Although they spent another day amidst the marvelous organization of the great paeking-houses, the International Harvester works and the Marshall Field department store, the humanitarian spirit and institutions seemed to impress them most profoundly. For when asked what stood out most conspieuously in the memory of his Chicago visit, Tuan Fang replied, "The publie eare of the insane, the house where the lady was, and the Young Men's Christian Assoeiation building." But the remark whieh most impressed the writer was that they were espeeially eharged by the empress dowager to investigate and report to her the provisions made by Western nations for the higher edueation of women.

These and many other things connected with this eommission bid us, in the name of the best that Ameriea stands for, to open our door to China as she enters the fellowship of the peoples. Regard for our world influenee as well as for our commereial and edueational interests should arouse us from our stupendous stupidity in alienating the Chinese people by our indiscriminate diserimination against them. Although justified by intelligent Chinese in exereising as strict surveillanee over immigration from their eountry as from any other, we are bound to raise the rightfully resented personal ban upon them in justiee to the influenee we have a right and a duty to exert upon the rapidly developing progress of the Far East.

Progress with the Unemployed in England

F. Herbert Stead,
London

The recent phases of the unemployed problem in England afford many proofs of an almost revolutionary rapidity in the social movement. Eleven years ago the suffering arising from lack of employment was far more intense than it has been since. To persist in pressing the claims of the unemployed on public attention at that time, was to be set down as socialist, or utopian, or even anarchist. Year by year, however, the education of public sentiment and of public judgment in the matter has been steadily proceeding. The pressure of the unemployed has been brought to bear in the first instance on the municipal authorities. The municipalities have been steadily growing in influence and in power; and, though not attracting the same amount of public notice as the noisier controversies of national politics, they have helped to precipitate an effective agreement among earnest-minded citizens on many of the chief social needs of the day. Inquiries were made, and conclusions arrived at, by many of the great cities, and notably by the London County Council.

The movement assumed a national phase last winter when Mr. Long, then president of the Local Government Board, inaugurated a scheme for combining borough councils, poor law guardians and unofficial experts in the administration of relief in joint committees for registering and classifying the unemployed in each area, leaving to charity the task of finding money to pay the wages of men set at work under the scheme. In London, the Mansion House fund reached the paltry sum of £50,000, which was as inadequate to find employment for the unemployed of London as a child's cap is to fit a giant's head. The next and logical step was the introduction of an unemployed bill into the last session of Parliament. The purpose of this measure was to empower the formation in every community of a central distress committee, consisting of representatives from local distress committees in each borough or urban area. These local committees in turn are composed of borough councilors, poor law guardians and a small number of co-opted members. The bill authorized a special rate to provide land for farm colonies, to meet the cost of administration, and to pay the wages of the workless, set to work. This latter clause aroused great opposition among the anti-collectivists, while it was at the same time hailed by the extreme collectivists as embodying the principle of the citizen's "right to work." The government accordingly announced its intention of dropping the whole bill. There were promptly riots among the unemployed in Manchester, and, in Parliament, Will Crooks threatened that, if the bill were dropped, he and his coadjutors would use every effort available in our complicated system of parliamentary procedure to block all legislative progress in the session. Alarmed by these threats, Mr. Balfour finally got an unemployed workmen's act passed, which provided out of the rates for the cost of registering and classifying the unemployed and for the cost of land for farm colonies, but made no provision for payment of wages to the unemployed. A by-product of this parliamentary oscillation was Mr. Balfour's decision to appoint a royal commission to revise our poor law system and bring it up-to-date. This is a step involving far-reaching change. Charles Booth is the most eminent of the poor law commissioners and may be trusted to see that the aged poor, as well as the unemployed, are suitably provided for.

The unemployed workmen's act eviscerated out of regard for reactionary susceptibilities, turned out to be a social menace of a formidable character. For, by registering the unemployed without finding them work, it simultaneously mobilized the armies of the unemployed, gave them a recognized status, created in them a class consciousness, and provided them with a substantial grievance—the absence of any provision for work. The only way to lay this social Frankenstein was in some way or other to find him work. After Parliament had been prorogued, and as the winter began, the East End, and notably the borough of Poplar, pressed upon the government the need

of arranging work by means of substantial aid from the imperial exchequer and to ask indemnity from the next session of Parliament for advancing the requisite funds. When King Edward was to open Kingsway, the new great thoroughfare through the heart of London, the Poplar council asked for permission to present him a loyal address, calling his majesty's attention to the needs of the unemployed. The official advisers of the king replied with an official *non-possumus*. Violent speeches in Poplar and elsewhere, backed up by widespread public sympathy, led the king, with his customary tact, to override the decision of his advisers and accept the projected address.

Uprising of Working Womanhood.

Then came one of the most striking and pregnant portents of active change. The working womanhood of London interposed. The women of the unemployed in east and south London organized a vast procession to accompany a deputation selected from their number to wait upon the prime minister and the local government board at Whitehall. Upwards of 6,000 women converged on the Thames' embankment, with scarcely a band of music among them, bearing banners with mottoes pathetic and sometimes menacing, demanding work for their men, bread for their children, and in some cases, votes for the women themselves. These furlongs of poverty-stricken womanhood silently trudging their way along the muddy streets, an elongated line of need and suffering and sympathy, created a profound impression upon the metropolis. No social or political demonstration of recent times called out the myriads of the population as did this dreary array. The multitudes watched the women as they passed, with sad sympathy and the police, present in great numbers, were as sympathetic as the crowd.

The interview of the deputation with the prime minister was an impressive illustration of how social extremes can meet. The wives of starving laborers from the east and south of London, mothers of hungry children, put their plea in plaintive accents to the heads of the greatest empire the world has known. All that they got, for the time, was philosophic sympathy and the pessimistic question: "What can I do?" The procession meantime had dispersed to various centers to be provided with refreshments. A few were entertained by the Archbishop of Canterbury at the Church House. A larger number were fed at Westminster Chapel, of which Dr. Campbell Morgan is pastor. In this huge place of worship the great mass of the women assembled and joined in expressions of intense indignation on hearing of the negative result of the deputation.

The result, however, has been far from negative. At the new lord mayor's banquet at the Guildhall the prime minister, instead of devoting his remarks, as is customary, to foreign affairs alone, prefaced his speech with a most earnest appeal to the city to provide from charitable sources the sums needed to set the unemployed workmen's act in motion and to provide work for the unemployed. The occasion and the speech formed a most picturesque as well as presageful contrast. Here was the prime minister of the British empire at the most gorgeous feast of Dives, trailing round the banqueting chamber the social skeleton of the unemployed. This unprecedented act attests the force of the impression made on the prime minister by the women's appeal, and still more, the impression produced upon the city itself, without which the prime minister would not have dared to speak as he did.

Enter the Queen.

The next development was the most startling of all. When the women's procession was first being organized the women of south London expressed a strong desire to go to Buckingham palace and to appeal to Queen Alexandra, whose sympathy with the suffering poor is so well known. The queen's advisers, however, resolutely refused to allow any such approach, for which they declared there was no precedent. The Southwark women would not entirely abandon the hope of in some way approaching her majesty. They had, in mass meeting assembled, already unanimously decided on a direct appeal to the queen, and at the great assembly of women in Westminster chapel described above they urged that

the memorial should be adopted by the whole of the demonstrating womanhood. This project was dropped, but the Southwark address was finally sent to the queen at Sandringham. Little attention was drawn in the public press to this fact.

But seven days after the apparently abortive deputation of women to the prime minister, the world was startled by the publication of a letter from Queen Alexandra to her palace treasurer, declaring her intention of opening a "Queen's Fund for the Unemployed" and of heading it with a donation of £2,000 from her own royal purse. This action, which had been totally unexpected by the most intimate circles of the court, and was by them at first regarded with a surprise almost approaching to consternation, was the spontaneous outcome of her majesty's own personal sympathy. It was, however, the act of a queen not less than that of a woman. It revealed not only a noble womanly impulsiveness; it showed a most royal discernment of the needs of the nation. But for her regal initiative, all prospects pointed to only the slenderest response from public charity, and consequently to the social menace previously alluded to assuming alarming dimensions. But where private benevolence, parliaments and prime minister had failed, the queen stepped in; and transformed a situation charged with revolutionary forces of high explosive power, into a means of knitting more closely together into effective sympathy all classes of the community.

Motherhood Rampant—a Portent.

The queen's fund has now reached the figure of £120,000, and as yet only a beginning has been made. The actual relief of distress is a great thing, but it is one of the least important effects of this intervention. The movement on behalf of the unemployed can no longer now be considered the happy hunting ground of the social extremist and the revolutionary. Its advocates can no longer be regarded with suspicion. It is now no longer even a party question. It has received in this royal patronage the endorsement of the sympathy of the entire nation. Most significant of all is the fact that this change has been wrought by the united action of British womanhood at the two opposite poles of the social world. The women of the unemployed and the woman on the throne have joined hands in insisting that the provision of work for willing workers is a duty incumbent, not on this or that section of the public, but on the whole empire. This is a presage of the new age on which we are entering. The woman's movement, which has been long regarded as an amiable fad of leisured ladies who, tired of crochet and croquet, want to play also at politics, has now entered on a serious and dynamic phase. When the wives and mothers of the lowest grade of labor, sodden with want and suffering, bearing on themselves the most crushing consequences of our social chaos, have so far advanced as to realize that in the co-operative action of the innumerable wills that constitute the nation, which men call government, lies the hope of redress for those organized injustices which mean no fire on the hearth, no bread on the board, and in the end no roof overhead; then tremendous changes are at hand. There is no more potent force in society than the instinct of motherhood. Even in the lowest animals it turns the timidest of creatures into the daring champion of her young. And when that same instinct, which has so long suffered in silence the anguish of starving childhood, becomes aware that in government and in organized pressure upon government rests a hope of relief, a new explosive has been added to the arsenal of social progress. Thousands of mothers of hungry children banded together in resolute endeavor to claim their share of political power and to use it as a means for bringing bread to their children's mouths, clothes to their children's backs and fire to the empty hearth, may yet prove a stronger force than all the confederated array of vested interests and of conscienceless greed. When womanhood generally has attained the intelligence and imagination requisite to understand the effect of legislation and administration on the being and well-being of childhood, national and domestic life will alike have been immeasurably exalted. The feminine half of humanity may yet rectify the blunders which the other half has made in politics and economics. When the housekeeper of the home takes in hand the "house laws" of

the state, the state may be more of a home to all its subjects.

Legislative Corollaries.

Meantime, the gaps of the unemployed workmen's act are bound to be filled in by the next Parliament. Work will have to be found for the unemployed out of state funds. We cannot count in every winter on the appearance of royal *dea ex machina*. The effort of charity has culminated in the action of her majesty, and must now be succeeded by national effort expressed in legislation. One member of the new government, Lloyd George, now president of the Board of Trade, has committed himself to the principle of "the right to work." John Morley disavows this principle, as might be expected from his Manchester school upbringing. But he has been relegated to the India office. The new Parliament will certainly contain a larger number than any Parliament that has preceded it of labor members, who may be trusted to see that the claims of workless labor shall not be ignored. "The right to work" may be regarded by purists as an unfortunate way of expressing an ethical obligation. One would speak more correctly of the duty of every subject in the state to contribute his quota to the general well-being and the bounden duty of the community to remove or modify such conditions as prevent the subject from fulfilling his contributory duty. This fundamentally Christian principle, based on the law of service, may be stated in simple English as the duty of every man to work, and of the state to provide him with work. It eventuates in the parlance of electoral conflict as "the right to work." That our French kinsmen in the revolutionary times of 1848 tried, but through bad management failed, to realize this principle, is no more an argument against English-speaking communities embodying it in legislation than that the first tragedies of aerial locomotion should prevent the coming conquest of the air.

Special Employment Bureau for the Handicapped[1]

The Need for a New Piece of Constructive Charitable Work in Greater New York

T. C. Janeway, M. D., C. C. Carstens

The New York Charity Organization Society has repeatedly taken the initiative in preventive work, the need for which has become apparent from working at close range with actual instances of distress. In this way some of the most useful recent social movements in New York have built upon a sound foundation and have put a new meaning into the term charity. The tide of the commitment of children was stemmed where destitution was the chief excuse for asking institutional care. Family life and health have been improved by means of better and cleaner tenements. Disease, and in particular tuberculosis, is showing a reduced death-rate. The temptation to beg has been removed to a large extent because of a vigorous prosecution of the mendicant on the street. These useful measures have made life among the poor appreciably more wholesome and many families who by sickness, death of the breadwinner or other misfortune have become dependent, have been helped back to self-support.

The usual means by which this becomes possible is in developing the latent capacity for work that exists in the family. Dependent children are supported until old enough to work; the sick are nursed back to health and aided until strength returns for them to take up their usual tasks again. A child with unusual talents is allowed to go to school longer than usual, to fit her for a better paying form of employment. The mendicant is given the alternative of going to work or spending successive periods in the workhouse. All these instances go on the supposition that work to suit each person is always at hand as soon as he is ready for it. Under ordinary industrial conditions and with most individuals the assumption is correct, and, if an employment bureau must be resorted to, those already existing serve the purpose adequately. Even

[1] This article is in substance the report of a special committee, consisting of Dr. Janeway and Mr. Carstens, assistant secretary, to the Central Council of the New York Charity Organization Society. The report was adopted and the work will be undertaken.

if a fee is required, a charitable society can better afford to pay this as a form of relief, than to establish a bureau for placing its own needy applicants at work.

A real difficulty arises, however, when sickness or accident has left the bread-winner a chronic invalid, but able to do something for a living if that something could be found; or a returned criminal is anxious to work if some one will trust him; or a cured consumptive is ready to be employed out-of-doors, but employers are loth to give him a chance; or a recent immigrant of the better type is finding it difficult to place himself because of ignorance of the language. The existing employment bureaus are of no service for such as these and many others whose situations are even more distressing. Further than this, employment bureaus will not be started to find suitable work for these, because it does not pay. Unless some charitable individual with great devotion and with an expenditure of unprofitable energy, or some agency like a district committee devotes itself to this herculean task of seeking employment for a person now generally considered unemployable, the only alternative has been public or private charity. One other thing could be done; an agency could be organized to study the handicapped individual and his abilities, and, by placing him at suitable work, prevent his dependence upon charity, or lift him out of his dependence, whenever a genuine desire for work still remains.

Individuals who Need this Service.

Even a casual analysis of those who may be included in the handicapped makes the group a large one.

1. First, are those generally known as cripples. By sickness or accident many have lost an arm or a leg, a hand or a foot; others have partially or wholly lost their sight or hearing. Employers may voluntarily, or as a result of a law-suit, recompense the workman for his loss; but it is generally but a meager sum and in a short time he becomes dependent, unless he has meanwhile learned some new form of work other than that for which he was originally fitted. Without some agency that will inquire into the community's needs and into his own abilities, he will rarely be placed in any work that will have permanence. Those suffering from various forms of poisoning, or from early locomotor ataxia, may also be included here, and are but a few of the many that might be mentioned.

2. A second group is that of convalescents. We have learned how to cure tuberculosis or arrest the progress of the disease, but we have so far failed to find employment to which the one dependent upon his own efforts, and who has others dependent upon him, can safely return. This is partly due to the fact that the community has not been persuaded to give a fair chance to a man who is or even has been tuberculous. Convalescents from affections of the heart and kidneys present equal difficulties. Suitable employment for the convalescent insane is said to have a great curative value, and cases of mild epilepsy are equally suitable for employment, but equally difficult to place.

3. A third class may be called invalids. There are those who for a period of months or years are incapacitated for the work that they were trained for, but who later return to it; and those who are permanent invalids, but have some faculties that can be used.

4. Then there is a class of apparent incapables; those who have failed in everything they have undertaken, either as a result of total lack of training at home or in a very poor institution, or as the result of a mild form of feeble-mindedness. This class of incapables is larger than would at first appear, and is not entirely unemployable.

5. A much larger class, however, is that of men and women who can furnish no satisfactory references. Among these are the intermittent workers who drift from job to job and from city to city. The periodical and occasional drinker is allied to these, but he is apt to be more fixed and more easily placed, because usually quite capable and, in popular parlance, "a hale-fellow-well-met." A very large group, and almost a class by themselves, are the discharged men and women from the workhouse, reformatory and penitentiary. While there are agencies at work in behalf of the reformatory and penitentiary men, the much larger number of workhouse men are almost en-

tirely neglected. The woodyard committee, of the Charity Organization Society, furnishes woodyard privileges to a certain number of these, but this is at best but continuous relief, and not paying work in the community.

A Few Specific Instances.

Several years ago Mayor Maybury, of Detroit, addressed a letter to the leading manufacturers of that city giving an estimate of the number of cripples, who were either mendicants or were dependent upon relatives or upon charity, and calling upon the business men to make use of as large a number as possible. About twenty-five were placed at once and without much effort. Doubtless some of these lost this work, but a systematic agency to follow them up and place them again, if the first attempt were a failure, would meet with a reasonable measure of success.

A man who had lost one arm, and who was for several years flagman at a grade crossing of the Philadelphia & Reading in Philadelphia, lost his work because he was found asleep at his post, sleeping off the effects of drink. A charitable agency, to which the wife appealed for aid, in the course of close inquiry learned of the man's excellent record previous to the incident which lost him his place. Among other well-attested facts it was learned that he had saved the lives of several school children, whom he had with one arm literally snatched from the wheels of the locomotive. The railroad did not re-employ him, but a neighboring factory took him as door-man, in which capacity he served well.

A young man had been employed as painter in the Erie Railroad car-shops for a number of years. As a result of the inhalation of turpentine while varnishing the interior of cars he had repeated attacks of aeute congestion of the kidneys, which seemed bound to lead to serious Bright's disease, and were already impairing his health. He was recently married and a baby was expected. The endeavor to place him in other employment was unsuccessful for months, owing to his lack of knowledge of anything but painting, at which he had received good wages. At one time he nearly threw himself into the river in desperation. Finally, just before the birth of the child, he was placed by private influence—he never could have obtained the position by his own efforts—as porter in a large business house. He was absolutely reliable, sober and honest. To-day he is one of the most trusted and best paid men in that capacity and is in excellent health, five years after his change of employment. This case illustrates what may and ought to be done for the large number of men yearly injured in the dangerous trades.

The Manhattan Trade School has educated a slightly feeble-minded girl to do good pasting. She is now employed, earning $3 a week. These four instances might be multiplied many fold, if we knew of all that is already being done in behalf of these unfortunates.

The General Plan of a Special Employment Bureau.

There are certain well-established hindrances to such a work as this. Widespread prejudice exists against an employé who is in poor health, or anyone who must save himself, even if he accepts a smaller wage. The over-supply of skilled as well as unskilled laborers is a constant hindrance to any general movement, which seems imperative, toward setting apart the positions of elevator men, doormen, watchmen, messengers, etc., to those who can do the work required, but who are handicapped in some particulars. The general attitude of labor unions is averse to these plans, and akin to this is the hesitation of the employé himself to be persuaded to saerifice something in earnings for the purpose of a longer period of earning power and longer life.

The agent of such a bureau would, therefore, have several tasks with which a general employment bureau would not concern itself. Aside from ascertaining the general fitness of an applicant for any task available, and keeping an accurate record of the applicant's qualifications, and of the bureau's experience with him, it would in many instances be necessary to learn a physician's opinion as to what kind of work would be permissible. In other instances the agent would have to select the most suitable work and find

means of training the applicant for new tasks. Again, he would have to make a more than usually careful inquiry and, in fact, to acquaint himself with his past as well as his present associates. He would have to demonstrate in individual cases the value of such a bureau, by placing men with handicaps who have exceptional fitness for positions that are but grudgingly made available. He would have to persuade employers to accept a responsibility toward this segment of the community, by setting aside tasks for men with handicaps and he would have to show the social and economic advantage which could come from utilizing these men and women. He would have to demonstrate to the labor unions the importance of helping the exceptional men, and the necessity for these men to accept a lower wage, to keep them from becoming total dependents. It is not inconceivable that the records of the society's experience in such a work of social salvage might present a bit of knowledge which would lead to conclusions of value.

The process must in general be one of education of the general public to new responsibilities, and mainly by successful, specific instances. Its developments must needs be slow, and especially at the start; but every person placed for a reasonable period would be clear gain, not only to the individual and his family, but to the number of the community's problems. In making an estimate of the total value of such work, one would not merely add together the number of men placed in some useful employment, but must estimate also how many employés would not become beggars, how many men and women would have a longer and more useful life, how many would meet each day with more self-respect because some form of honorable employment was awaiting them, how many would be kept from yielding again to the temptation of theft or burglary.

To obtain a fair trial for these unfortunates, to get the man or woman to do his or her utmost, and if failure results to follow this trial up with a still more carefully conceived effort, is work that will try the mettle of the best of us, but it is work of a sort for which our city has an increasing need

Some Factors in England's Relief Problem

Aid for the unemployed became once more a burning question in England in the winter of 1903-'04. Good trade and industrial conditions had prevailed for some years previous, but toward the end of November, 1903, an open letter appeared, signed by the bishop of Stepney, Canon Barnett, and other well-known ministers and residents of the East End, calling attention to the danger of exceptional distress through want of employment. Relief works were advocated and an appeal for a Mansion House fund which had not been needed since 1895 was urged.

During the succeeding winter, families to the number of 467, containing 2,456 persons, received relief. The main feature of this relief plan was the offer of continuous work in colonies outside of London, to male heads of families who had homes in London. The men were boarded and lodged in the country while adequate relief, proportioned to the number of children, was paid direct to their families at home, payments averaging three dollars and a half per week per family.

These plans, while limited in scope, and in number reached, in large measure realized the hopes of those who shaped them. Idlers and the hopelessly dependent soon ceased to apply as soon as they saw real work was required. The test of the breadwinner's removal from London, which made the relief work different and less attractive than ordinary employment, made it possible to keep in close touch with the needy family. The work in good country air, the absence of intoxicants, the payment of money to the wives, the establishment of friendly relations with the men and their families, and the automatic pressure which the desire of the men to return to their families exerted to have them find work near at home, were the advantages that the advocates of the plans point to. It became equally clear to them, however, that there is a large group of "unemployable," who have been in and out of the workhouse and casual

wards, for whom a permanent, compulsory labor colony is deemed essential, and by the establishment of which the administration of the free colony for those who are out of work in time of serious unemployment would be very much lightened. But many of the former may be said to be never regularly employed and the bread-winner is always looking for work. He gets jobs as longshoreman, as a builder's helper, or other odd temporary jobs.

The real difficulty in applying wise methods of work-relief lies not in the idler nor the impostor, but in the "average" man who is ready to work but who, with the "average" failings, wants union standard of wages for less than union standard of work—who has to be carefully watched before he will do a fair day's work, or who never has worked for more than two or three days at work of his own getting, but is ready to take the relief work as a permanent job.

The distress committee under the new unemployment act has no easy task, therefore, lest it may be "assisting workers in seasonal trades during the normal period of depression, which, as it points out, would be merely an addition to their wages at the public expense, and would remove all incentive to thrift and organization," and lest it may do infinite harm by keeping workers in places of unemployment by the lavish expenditure of public money. Relief works, it must be remembered, are started to relieve. They are open, and must in the nature of things be open, to a large number of men of very different training and efficiency who are relieved according to their need rather than according to the value of the work done. If they do the best they can, it is all that can be expected of them. To pay trade union rates of wages for work necessarily so inferior, is merely to put a dead loss on the country, which has to provide the funds, and is a peculiar injustice to efficient workmen. For instance, the superintendent of Hadleigh writes of the men sent there in 1903-'04:

> For the purpose of comparison, we should say that at least four of the committee's men would be required to do the amount of work that one trained agriculturist or navvy would have done under the same circumstances, and even then the quality of the work done was decidedly inferior. . . . Again, the quality of the work was such that in many cases all that was done during the early days by the men, before they were used to their work, had to be done over again.

But does the right of a man to live imply a right to more than the product of his labor? "If the product is not sufficient for his maintenance, what then?" To quote from the London *Charity Organisation Review:*

> The "back to the land" and the farm colony remedy are still the most popular. There is a striking sentence in this connection in the report of the Hadleigh superintendent on last winter's work: "Only a small percentage of the men had any desire or taste for an agricultural life. . . . The general lack of ambition in the men was very noticeable." Obviously, the mediocre man was represented in force at Hadleigh, and the mediocre man is one who always sticks in a groove. It is not very hopeful; and anyone who has ever tried to get townspeople back to the country, knows how difficult a task it is.

This season's public discussion opened dramatically with the East End women's deputation to Mr. Balfour, and the opening of the Alexandra Fund, so named because of the queen's heading the public subscription with a large sum; and a new Central Unemployment Committee has been organized to have control of its expenditure. The principle of requiring a return of labor for the relief given is well established, but how the dole of work shall be avoided, how to avoid drawing self-supporting men into the relief works, how to force men into the labor community who live on the wife's earnings because they are not willing to work at less than the standard rate of wages, are still questions without a proper solution. To quote from these English sources:

> If a man through physical incapacity can only give nine pennyworth of labor, there may be little objection to paying him the shilling; but if he could give a shilling's worth, and does not, there would seem to be some objection to encouraging him, especially at the cost of more honest laborers.
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> The united evidence of unemployed committees, borough council surveyors, and others who have had practical experience in dealing with this question, shows that in paying less than the trade union rate of wages for work set apart for the "unemployed," so far from taking advantage of the distress of the bulk of the men, the community still stands to lose heavily. As we

have pointed out before, the men employed where relief works are set on foot, come from different trades, and may be physically unfit as well as untrained for the particular labor provided them; but further, we believe it would be extremely difficult for the bulk of the men to regard these 'unemployed' jobs from a strictly professional point of view. In this respect, it is a matter of no moment whether the funds are raised from charity or from the rates and taxes; work labeled 'for the unemployed' is and will be regarded as relief—a kind of 'soft job' to tide a man over a bad time or as a permanency, if he happens to like it, but not demanding any such effort as a regular job under an ordinary employer.

In saying this, we do not mean that there are not many workmen who will not rise superior to this tendency, but the mass will not, and unless there is most careful grading and selection it is they who will set the standard.

The editor of the *Charity Organisation Review* does not believe the remedy lies in the direction of artificial state employment toward which the unemployment act has gone at least one step, but in better industrial organization:

The co-operators with their workshops and distributive societies, the friendly societies with their benefits, the trade unions with their 'out-of-work' and thrift funds, have done far more to lift the poorer classes out of the evils of poverty and unemployment than all the philanthropy in the world. And when one remembers how youthful in fact all these movements, at least in their modern form, really are, surely their record is an encouraging one, promising greater accomplishments in the future, if only in our impatience we refrain from putting obstacles in their way.

Congress and the Children

Edward T. Devine

Senator Hoar's successor in the Old Bay State's representation at Washington has lost no time in identifying himself with a piece of constructive statesmanship which promises well for his future usefulness to the republic. His bill for the creation of a Children's Bureau in the Department of the Interior indicates that he has sufficient imagination and freedom from the chilling grasp of precedents to enable him to take an effective part in progressive legislation and, at the same time, that he has the capacity for forming sound and sober judgment as to the lines on which social progress should proceed.

The significant section of the measure, which is officially known as Senate Bill No. 2962, after an enacting clause creating the Children's Bureau, is as follows:

That the said bureau shall be under the direction of a chief, to be appointed by the president, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, and who shall receive an annual compensation of five thousand dollars. The said bureau shall investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life, and shall especially investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth-rate, physical degeneracy, orphanage, juvenile delinquency and juvenile courts, desertion and illegitimacy, dangerous occupations, accidents and disease of children of the working classes, employment, legislation affecting children in the several states and territories, and such other facts as have a bearing upon the health, efficiency, character and training of children. The chief of said bureau shall, from time to time, publish the results of these investigations.

The remaining sections provide for the organization of the working staff of the bureau, and for the necessary quarters in which its work is to be done.

Attention is called to the enumeration of the questions which the bureau is especially to investigate. It is a time-honored and legitimate function of government to investigate questions relating to trade and commerce, questions of national defense and of military efficiency, questions of industrial organization, of agriculture, of forestry, of fisheries, even such questions of labor, as wages, unemployment, restriction of output and the settlement of strikes. But never has any more legitimate object of official inquiry been proposed than that which is named in Senator Crane's measure, *viz.*, the welfare of children and child life. In a very fragmentary and ineffective way certain aspects of this problem are already dealt with by existing branches of the federal government. The Labor Bureau, the Bureau of Education, and the Census Bureau all contribute some material which would be of service in the prosecution of the more comprehensive work which the Children's Bureau would un-

dertake. But only an infinitesimal part of what is proposed is actually being done, and for lack of coordination and interpretation it is wholly ineffective for the protection of children and the safeguarding of their right to birth, to health, to parental guardianship, and to training for efficiency.

It is not proposed, of course, that the federal government shall itself enact legislation on the subjects which under our constitution are reserved to the states. The bureau is to be a bureau of research and publicity. It is to ascertain the facts concerning infant mortality, and the other phenomena enumerated in the section quoted—not only in their quantitative measurement, in which the Census Bureau may properly co-operate, but as to the underlying causes, the remedial, or preventive measures adopted in any communities, at home or abroad, and their success or failure. Its published reports would be at the service of all the state legislators, labor bureaus, factory inspectors, and municipal authorities; and equally at the service of all philanthropic agencies and private citizens, engaged in helping in any way to prevent degeneracy, to improve the human stock, to promote the welfare of society by raising the standard of child life. Congress should surely make this bill a law at this session, and make it possible for the president to put immediately at work an efficient Children's Bureau under the direction of the ablest expert in this field that the country affords.

The Labor Vote in Philadelphia's Political Upheaval

Henry Johns Gibbons

There is a widespread impression outside of Philadelphia that the labor vote in that city at the memorable election of November, 1905, was cast in support of the discredited Republican organization, which was buried under a surprisingly large adverse majority. This is due to the fact that local political affairs receive scant notice, save from local newspapers; and, although the final news of victory, together with the more spectacular events, were heralded far and wide, there were necessarily meager accounts to be found outside of Pennsylvania as to the numerous preliminary skirmishes and reconnoiterings. In order that all misapprehensions may be removed as to the so-called endorsement of the "organization ticket" by the Central Labor Union, of Philadelphia, and as to the consequences of that action, a brief statement of the facts is in order, and, as a matter of justice to our wage-earning population, greatly needed.

Philadelphia, as the great manufacturing center of the United States, keeps one-third of its population, or about 500,000 persons employed as wage-earners in various industries. Probably one-half of this army of workers may be considered eligible for membership in the labor union. As a matter of fact, the percentage of actual members is slightly higher than that for the country at large, and there are approximately 50,000, or twenty per cent, enrolled in about two hundred unions. With the exception of that group of unions in the textile industries, which are extensive in Philadelphia, and those whose members are railroad men, the Philadelphia unions are affiliated in a central body called the Central Labor Union.

This organization embraces 120 unions, each of which sends a delegate, although the delegates are chosen to represent six sections: the Allied Building Trades (which has thirty-six delegates on account of the large number of trades and unions), the Allied Printing Trades, the United Garment Workers, the United Teamsters, the United Metal Workers, and a miscellaneous section comprising the unions of cigarmakers, bricklayers, bartenders, and others. At the head of these 120 men is a president, chosen by them, and a representative elected by each of the sections, these seven constituting the executive board and being possessed of considerable power in the deliberations of the Central Union.

Ambitious to have a labor candidate

for sheriff, which was the principal office in dispute at this election, the Central Union endorsed Frank Feeney, its president, who is an elevator constructor, for this high position. Feeney is known as an "organizing," rather than a "working" member of his trade, and had reached a position of authority among his fellow unionists not without strong opposition from different quarters. Under his leadership, the Labor Day parade in September of 1905, which contained ten floats advocating the election of Frank Feeney as the United Labor Party's choice for high sheriff dwindled to 10,000 men.

The original plan was that the candidate of the union should seek the endorsement of some other party, or failing this, run independently. As no party would endorse him, the United Labor Party idea was boomed. Popular approval seemed to be wanting, so at a meeting of the Central Labor Union held October 8, 1905, attended by about eighty-five of the 120 members, Feeney presented his resignation. In accordance with a pre-arranged plan, a motion was made by a bartender that "the labor union endorse and stand by its friends at the coming election." Questioned as to who were its friends, the reply was "the Republican Party, of course." The motion to endorse the Republican organization candidates was then put and carried, but not unanimously.

Immediately a storm of opposition arose within the ranks of organized labor to this action by the central body. Numerous unions met and repudiated the movement. Several active leaders went upon the "stump" for the City Party fusion ticket to counteract the influence of this mistaken and misleading action of the Central Labor Union. Among these were one of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and one of the Typographical Union leaders. In the writer's own ward, the ward chairman, the ward vice-chairman and the ward secretary, of the City Party, were printing trades men, and other workers in the City Party were either union members or sturdy sympathizers with union principles.

The situation just previous to the great battle of the ballots was somewhat like this: The Republican organization, fearful of the result, had removed from its ticket the candidates chosen by the convention, because they were typical "organization men" standing for all that the people had wrathfully risen against. In place of those regularly chosen, the city committee of the Republican party, under a provision of its rules (the candidates having been persuaded to resign after a great deal of urging), proceeded to name four very respectable citizens without offensive political records, and of exemplary reputation. This decoy ticket, it was hoped, would bring back to the support of the "stalwarts" those who were following the strange gods of the City Party. The Central Labor Union had endorsed this decoy ticket.

Opposed to this "regular" ticket, which had been successful in Philadelphia from time immemorial, irrespective of the character of the nominees placed upon it (the mere name Republican always carrying it through the stormiest seas of reform agitation), was a fusion ticket composed of four active reformers. Originally named by a perfectly untrammelled convention of the City Party, it was endorsed by the Democrat, Lincoln, Independence, and Prohibition parties.

Very active campaigning ensued. Noonday meetings were held at the large mills and factories, where the truth of the situation was brought forcibly home to laboring men by laboring men themselves upon the "hustings." The action of the Central Labor Union was bitterly attacked. Unions met and discussed the true inwardness, both of the principle at stake in the election and what ulterior motives there might have been in inducing the Central Labor Union leaders to take such a step.

At this point, it is necessary to state that, in Philadelphia at least, about one-fifth of the membership usually attend the union meetings. It is generally the same fifth, too, and is composed of those men with the genius for organizing, a taste for politics, and a capacity for "running things" or carrying out their own desires. This one-fifth in the various unions elected the delegates to the Central Union. Recalling the proportions stated at the beginning of this article, it

can readily be seen that the Central Labor Union is not, in every sense of the word, representative of Philadelphia's laboring population, or even of its labor union membership.

But it can also be demonstrated that the action of the Central Labor Union, of Philadelphia, was not even indicative of the desires of the numerous underlying and affiliated unions, and that this was borne out by the votes of the members at the polls.

Of the 250,000 votes cast in the city, the "organization" received about 100,000 and the City - Lincoln - Democrat - Independence - Prohibition - fusionists 150,000 With 50,000 labor union men, and a much larger number of non-union, it can readily be seen that the Republican organization was not heartily supported by the labor element, as about 75,000 of those 100,000 votes represented the "dyed-in-the-wool-machine-Republicans." But, as additional proof, there is here submitted the result of a painstaking, accurate, and secret investigation of the labor union vote by a man in Philadelphia best qualified to make a statement on the matter. It is not deemed wise to give his name for obvious reasons; his useful activity might be curtailed. But the results of the investigation are interesting and instructive.

Of the textile workers, four-fifths voted the City Party ticket; of the Socialists, one-half split their tickets for the benefit of the City Party nominees; of the railroad men, one-third voted for fusion, and one-third were non-committal; street railway men, same as railroad men, except that more were non-committal for reasons which will presently be explained; building trades, one-third for City Party; iron trades, two-thirds for City Party; printing trades, two-thirds for City Party; garment trades, bare majority for City Party; longshoremen, majority for "organization"; teamsters, majority for "organization"; colored laborers, two-thirds for "organization"; all other trades, from majority to four-fifths for City Party.

It will be observed that many of the railroad and street railway men were non-committal. This is due to their fear of discharge, the support of the Pennsylvania Railroad and the Rapid Transit Company, as well as of other public service corporations, being openly favorable to the perpetuation of the Republican organizaton in power, because of numerous favors at its hands. Indeed, there were frequent rumors of influence being brought to bear to "line up" their employés to vote the Republican tieket. Some discharges were made of too active City Party workers. Naturally this made the other employés wary of expressing themselves, and undoubtedly influenced very many to vote the "machine" ticket for fear of dismissal. It was an effective threat in the face of winter to men with families.

The teamsters and longshoremen were also influenced by the public service corporations, and by another move upon which I shall not dwell. This was an effort to draw the line between Catholic and Protestant. Because one of the "boodle contractors" under fire was an important personage in the parish of the Roman Catholic Cathedral, a strong and persistent course of scheming and intrigue to cause denominational cleavage ran through the entire campaign. It did have its final effect in increasing the Republican vote, but was practically nullified by the vigorous attack upon its contrivers by an energetic priest and a newspaper of the church.

With all allowances made, it can be safely estimated that a majority of the labor vote of Philadelphia in the last election did not follow the recommendation of the Central Labor Union. It is also a safe conclusion that this body has learned a lesson. And this lesson is that the labor vote of this great city is as independent as that of any other class of citizens, and that it cannot be driven, especially in favor of dishonesty against honesty.

In conclusion, one other feature of the campaign is worthy of bare mention. A futile attempt was made by the discredited Republican organization to array labor against capital, because a number of wealthy men were taking an active part in assisting the City Party. This failed utterly, and its effect was not perceptible in the returns.

Together with other Philadelphians, the members of the labor unions have the right to say, "It was *our* victory."

In the Potato Fields.

Slav Emigration at Its Source

Emily Greene Balch

II.—Bohemian Emigration

This is the second of a series of articles giving some of the results of Miss Balch's studies in Austria-Hungary.

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On a brilliant autumn day with white clouds chasing through the splendid blue above and the stream beside us running as gayly as the blood in our veins, we started out for a tramp in the neighborhood of Strakonice, in Southern Bohemia, to learn what we could of emigration from that vicinity.

With us went an old workingman who was to take us to visit various families which had been in America or which had members there. He not only knew the neighborhood and its public, but was much interested in our errand—as he had six children in the United States.

As we left the orchard path beside the brook and struck across by field tracks to the nearest village, we had to ask our way now and again of a man doing his fall ploughing, or a woman at work among her cabbages. The countryside was widespread and rolling, with a wooded hill dark on the horizon and everywhere open fields now bare of crops. The village itself characteristically clustered about an irregular open space was given a forlorn appearance by the traces of one of the all too common conflagrations, but the low houses with their farmyards and outbuildings looked pleasant and homelike.

We found the one we wanted and were hospitably welcomed by a friendly elderly peasant woman, kerchief on head. As we drank the great mugs of cream which she had set before us and ate her good rye bread, we heard all about the daughter settled in New York and saw her pictures, first in her pre-American stage as a heavy-faced, ill-dressed girl, then in America with her husband (a bandmaster) and her child, all three with faces intelligent and refined as well as good, and finally as a widow in a position of some responsibility in a hotel.

This was one of the most marked cases where the pictures seemed to indicate a great personal advance. Too often, when one contrasts the American photograph with the home surroundings that it is supposed to adorn, the impression is that while there is plenty of gain in comfort and in the standard of expenditure, the advantage as regards grace of bearing, real beauty of dress and personal dignity are all in favor of the peasant stay-at-homes.

At another house we found a woman threshing beside her brother-in-law. She had left her husband and two daughters in Nebraska and returned to look after her old mother, but was going soon to rejoin her husband.

Another house was the home of a family decidedly better off, with the ample barns which are the sign of successful farming the world over. Our time was getting short and we had only a talk at the doorway with the housemother. Her youngest daughter was going to America next week to join an elder sister, traveling with a girl friend from the next village. Was there any chance that they could go with us?

Our Guide.

But the best thing of the day was our guide. His talk, in the more or less imperfect German which even quite "uneducated" Bohemians generally command, was sufficiently racy and interesting, partly from its curious blending of elements, partly from his entertaining and kindly personality.

Now he gave us the story of his uncle who went to America in 1852, one of those who made up the first large wave of over-sea emigration from Bohemia. A shoemaker by trade, he sold his house and went out with his wife and two children. According to our guide's account he had various affairs with the Indians as he traveled westward in his prairie schooner including, if I remember rightly, hospitality on his part consisting of a much appreciated sacrifice of one of the chickens which he carried with him in a cage, with a return gift of a nugget of gold done up in a cover of pitch. He became a farmer, but later, after an exciting career selling provisions and carrying pay to the Confederates, is supposed to have met his death by hanging during the troublous times of the Civil War.

Intermixed with these pictures of Western life were stories of ghosts and devils told with the appearance of the most naïve belief. Whether this was the art that conceals art or not we were never sure. His legend of the Strakonice bagpiper who piped to Satan and his companions was one of the best known bits of Bohemian folklore. I preferred the account of the girl who, coming home one evening by the very path that we were then on, suddenly felt a hobgoblin leap upon her shoulders, and found herself obliged to attend personally to the founding of three chapels (duly pointed out to us) that the soul of a blind man, recently hanged by mistake for a church robbery, might find rest. The event might have been chronicled in yesterday's *Abendblatt*—it had such an air of actuality.

Our guide was himself a social democrat and quite of the twentieth century in his politics. Nevertheless he, as an old soldier, had never shaken off the admiration of the emperor, which was evident as he told us of various occasions in which he had seen him, as well as in the greeting which he sent us after our departure —a postal with a picture of his majesty on horseback.

On the long home tramp he talked to us again of his relatives in America. There are twelve of them there and he has a whole box of letters from them.

One nephew, who is a little "leichtsinnig," fought in the Philippines. One sister has a pension on account of her husband's service in the Civil War. A son is a turner by trade and lives in Minnesota, as do various other members of the family, mainly in St. Paul. The rest are in "Nevjork."

Apparently all are doing well in the world; the tragedy is on the personal side —in the parting felt to be almost as hopeless as death itself. One married daughter in the West had ceased to write. About the youngest girl, evidently rather flighty even at home, he was heartsore and anxious. By mistake she had mailed him an English letter, which he asked us to read to him. It was to a young man making an appointment at a street corner on the East Side. Our guide had surmised as much for himself.

We had naturally supposed it to be a business arrangement when he took a day's leave from his regular work to tramp the countryside with us. But no, he would not hear of such a thing. He could hardly bid us three—girls, as we were to him, goodbye. "It seems to me in a sort of way as if you came from my girls in America," he said, and, with a catch in his old voice, "It is hard to lose six all at once."

Bohemian Immigration Old in Its Beginnings.

I have been tempted to tell this episode at length because it stands for so many similar experiences and talks. One point in which it is characteristic, is in reaching back into a comparatively distant past. Of all Slavic emigration to America (as well as of all from Austria) Bohemian emigration was the first to be of importance, and in the fifties, the day of the uncle of this tale, it was already very considerable.

There had, indeed, been stray Bohemian colonists in America from almost the earliest times, interesting rather to the antiquarian and for their personal picturesqueness than for their actual importance. It is, however, worth while to bear in mind that "the fathers" were not all English, that even the French, Dutch, Spanish and Swedish settlers by no means exhaust our genealogy.

In 1633 Augustine Herman, of Prague, lord of the celebrated Bohemia Manor in Maryland, was already in New Nether-

VILLAGE NEAR
STRAKONICE

FALL
PLOUGHING

The co-operation of men and women in the field work is seen everywhere.

HOME FROM MARKET

The whitewashed houses with their moss-grown thatch are of a very common type.

lands. Bedrich Filip, or Frederick Philips, came to New Amsterdam in 1658 and, marrying Catherine van Cortland, had a "manor hall" (later the town hall) in Yonkers and a so-called "Castle Philipse" in Sleepy Hollow. He was of an old noble family in Bohemia where, since the defeat of the White Mountain in 1620 when national independence and religious liberty were crushed together, all that was self-respecting or in any degree eminent had been crushed or exiled.

Of wider interest was the coming of the thrice winnowed followers of Huss, the "Moravian Brethren," exiled from Bohemia as "Bohemian Brethren" and later drawn from their refuge in Moravia to Saxony where Count Zinsendorf gave them protection at Herrnhut. Fired with missionary zeal, a small body of them landed in 1736 in Georgia, where Count Zinsendorf had procured a grant of land. Here Wesley attended the dedication of their church. By 1739 they had also a missionary colony in South Carolina, but this was made impossible by the quarrels between English and Spanish in which they would not participate and could not remain neutral. In 1740 they were accordingly transported in Whitefield's shallop to Philadelphia. Here new difficulties arose, but by 1741 they were established at Bethlehem in the Lehigh Valley. From this as a center they have founded numerous settlements, and they have increased until they now number over 16,000 in the United States.

In spreading as a sect they have, however, naturally lost their national character and abandoned Bohemian for English.

Thomas Capek, of New York, in an interesting pamphlet on the subject, mentions various other immigrants of the early nineteenth century (one an associate of John Jacob Astor), and the revolutionary years 1848 and 1849 brought from Bohemia, as from many other countries, a few choice spirits as political refugees. One of these was Vojta Náprstek, who, after ten years in America, returned to Prague to devote his life to the spread of enlightenment and liberty, in which he felt that America had much to teach. His main visible monuments in Prague are an industrial museum and a library carried on in the spirit of hospitality itself by his widow. The Bohemian poet Zeyer wrote for his urn this beautiful inscription: "What remains of the body can be easily put into a small vessel, yet his great heart carried in itself the whole world."[1]

[1] *Bohemia: a Stir of Its Social Conscience.* Josefa Humpal Zeman. The Commons, July, 1904.

NAPRSTEK INDUSTRIAL MUSEUM, BETHLEHEM PLACE, PRAGUE

The low house with the double-tiled roof is the old family home where the library is situated. The doubled-tiled tall modern building behind holds the museum. The famous Bethlehem chapel where Huss preached was near this place and the house supposed to be his still stands here.

Feudal Labor Dues in Bohemia—Abolished 1848.

After the Painting by Jaroslav Spillar.

Close on the revolutionary epoch came the discovery of gold in California in 1849, which was followed by the first considerable emigration from Bohemia. It has been said that this discovery (with the consequent activity of ship agents) was the cause of this movement, but I have never heard of Bohemians as gold seekers. I should be interested to hear any evidence on this point.

It should also be mentioned that in 1848 serfdom and labor dues were abolished in Bohemia, so that for the first time the peasant had his personal freedom. It was not, however, till 1867 that the law granted the right to emigrate at will—subject, of course, to the requirements of military service or other obligations.

The Bohemian Immigrants Are Settlers.

This legal right to emigrate, the disastrous war with Prussia in 1866, and, in America, the close of the Civil War, are enough to account for the rapid increase of Bohemian emigration at this time. For fifteen years before 1866 it had averaged a little under two thousand yearly, though in 1853, 1854 and 1855 it had been over three thousand each year (in 1854 over six thousand). From 1866 on it steadily averaged over four thousand and the war may be held to mark the beginning of the newer emigration.

In the home districts the earlier movement is by no means forgotten, as we have seen, and pioneer relatives are all the more remembered because the proverbial uncle in America is a better source of hopeful dreams than any castle in Spain.

In Domazlice we were given a very interesting account by a man who was semi-professionally acquainted with the circumstances.

> The earliest went from here in 1845 in a sailing ship and were thirty-five weeks at sea! Forty or fifty years ago it was an epidemic. Then the whole family went at once; while now the son commonly goes first, then the daughter, then the parents. Most older people who go out now go to join their children. The first to emigrate were *handwerkers* (which would mean carpenters, tailors, shoemakers, butchers, smiths, weavers, etc.). Peasants at first would not hear of America, they only began to go in the sixties. The early emigrants generally settled in the country, while now they go to the cities. It was a hard business then. There were no relatives to go to as there are now. But the children learned the language, "und sie haben's gut g'habt."

The grandson of one, who had recently returned on a visit, was evidently a shining example of this good fortune. Another,

who went out about 1855, has sons in the state of Washington but they do not write. All ties with the old country are broken; they have never been back and know no one.

Another informant was a tailor, one of the last of those who know how to make the pretty peasant costumes of this region about Domazlice, where almost alone in Bohemia the old dress has not become obsolete. He was a quaint and attractive figure bending with his big spectacles over his gay silk embroidery or raising his intelligent face with its deep lines to talk of the old days or of his son, a priest in America.

In 1854 went the first five families, all to Ohio; in 1866 went three families also to Ohio; the next year three families and four lads, one to Ohio. One has a brewery, the rest farms. In 1880 three more families went to Ohio. This represents the contribution, or part of it, of one neighborhood.

While one must beware of accepting the experience of individuals as the criterion for a whole mass of facts, the impression here given that emigration was a movement of *settlers,* whole families going together, is borne out by all that we know and notably by the large proportion of women and of children and old persons that has always characterized Bohemian immigration to the United States.

For the epidemic character of the earlier movement there is also other evidence, and it is interesting to note that the government tried to check the movement by having it preached against from the pulpit —naturally without effect.

Immigration Since Our Civil War.

As has been said the Civil War marks a turning point in Bohemian emigration. From 1866 to 1880 it averaged, according to the Austrian figures, which are certainly far below the truth, over four thousand a year, twice as much as in the preceding period. These figures, be it noted, are for Bohemian emigration to all countries. American figures were lacking till the census of 1870, when over forty thousand persons born in Bohemia were counted. According to the same authority the decade 1870-80 added forty-five thousand, 1880-1890 not quite thirty-three thousand and the last decade not quite thirty-eight thousand, with a total of nearly 157,000

The German-speaking parts of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia (marked by bars) are mainly on the borders of these countries, contiguous with the German populations of Upper and Lower Austria, Bavaria, Saxony and Prussia. There is also a Polish-speaking district (marked by dots), in eastern Silesia, contiguous with that of Galicia. Otherwise the majority of the population in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia speak Bohemian (Czech) or some nearly-related dialect; this territory is left blank.

Bohemians in this country. The decade 1890-1900 was marked by great fluctuations in Bohemian immigration; 1891 and 1892 were heavy years (respectively, 11,758 and 8,278), then after the crisis of 1893 had made itself felt there were six years when the numbers ranged about the level of two to two and a half thousand. The succeeding years have shown an increase again, the number rising steadily if allowance be made for the effect of the presidential election.[1]

It should be mentioned that the United States authorities, who began in 1882 to give a separate column to persons from Bohemia, have changed their classification from time to time, and that beginning with the year 1899 they ceased to state the number of persons from Bohemia and gave instead the number of "Bohemians and Moravians."

This brings us to the difficulty involved in the word *Bohemian*. Bohemia is a country about twice as large as Massachusetts and somewhat less densely populated (respectively, 122 and 127 to the square kilometer). Of its population of over six millions not quite two-thirds are Bohemians or Czechs by race, that is by language.

On the other hand, the Czechs of Bohemia are only a part of the fairly homogeneous Slav population which makes up the population of most of Moravia and western Silesia as well as of Bohemia.

This situation makes great confusion and *Bohemian* covers quite a different group, according as it refers to a territorial or to a racial and linguistic group. The present immigration group, *Bohemians and Moravians,* means the latter.

Geographically Bohemia is a plain surrounded by ranges of mountains or hills. It will be noted that the German settlements, which go back to the early thirteenth century at least, are mainly along the frontiers where the greater part of the industry and a large part of the mines are to be found. The trend of the land is toward the north, which is not only lower, but warmer and more fertile than the south, the mountain, protecting it from the cold winds to which the latter is exposed.

[1] The figures read: Bohemians and Moravians 1900, 3,056; 1901, 3,766; 1902, 5,593; 1903, 9,591; 1904, 11,911; 1905, 11,757.

Economic Factors in Emigration.

It is mainly from these little favored southern districts that emigrants come and have come from the beginning. In 1853 and 1854 nearly three-quarters were from about Pilsen and Budweis, and the same region, together with that about Tabor and Pisek, and the Kuttenberg and Caslau region, seems still to send the bulk of the emigration. That is, it comes mainly from districts which are Czech rather than German, agricultural rather than industrial, and notoriously infertile. Milcin, a town a little to the north of Tabor, is supposed to be the coldest spot in the country and is called the "Bohemian Siberia." In the district about Pisek (pisek means in Bohemia *sand*) one sees wide stretches of apparently unusable land.

The causes of Bohemian emigration are not far to seek, at least in a general way. The great common cause of emigration from Europe to America is the fact that labor earns more product here than there and this in turn is fundamentally due to the two main facts that America has a vast wealth of comparatively unexhausted natural resources and an organization of production which has never been equalled for efficiency.

The difference in relative values is forcibly suggested by a remark I noted in an article on forestry in Austria. The author cites, as an example of the shocking waste of woods going on in some localities, places where the inhabitants had *actually used up wood to fence pastures simply to save themselves the trouble of taking care of their animals.* What would be the shiftlessness of an American farmer who employed the whole time of an able-bodied person, year in and year out, to watch one or perhaps two cows! This difference is the key to immigration.

But while the grounds of emigration are in the main economic, it is a mistake to suppose that poverty is the cause in the sense that the poorer a man or district the greater the impulse to emigration. Poverty, especially a settled poverty to which people have adjusted themselves and which finds expression in a low standard of living and perhaps in physical deterioration, is not an initiating force.

Moreover generally the poorest classes and the poorest districts lack the money to make the move, even if they are not, as is too often the case, tried down by debt in some shape or other.

It is when the habitual balance of family budgets is disturbed that emigration takes place. The misadjustment may be due to a cutting down of income by some disaster, or it may be due to an increase of wants. And precisely the awakening of new wants is a characteristic of our time affecting one backward and lethargic region after another. It is extremely contagious, and the news that it is anywhere possible to earn more and live better calls slumbering forces of energy and unrest into sudden life.

As examples of cases of Bohemian emigration due to specific disasters I will cite the pearl-button makers ruined by the McKinley bill. At Neuhaus, in southern Bohemia, we found men working for $2.40 a week, who before the act got $6, or even $10. They told us of a whole neighborhood gone to America.

Again, at the mining town of Kladno, we found that emigration on a large scale had recently set in there as a result of an unsuccessful strike and a fall of wages. Similarly Bohemians in New York tell of coming on account of a strike in the Kuttenberg tobacco factories—in the seventies, I think. In Pilsen I was told that many coal mines have been given up or worked with less men, and that as a consequence many miners, unused to agriculture and wanting better wages, had gone to Germany and to America.

In individual cases, too, purely personal reasons may be the prime factor. In Bohemia I heard occasional accounts of ne'er-do-weels emigrating and one story—the only one I ran across in nearly ten months' investigation—of a case of "assisted emigration."

Rarely I met the feeling that to go to America was a fact that must be explained away as implying some sort of failure at home and also the belief that emigration was for the sake of an imagined easy life in a land of gold.

Both these ideas were expressed in a place where a considerable emigration had only recently set in and are, I think, characteristically confined to this early phase. As a general thing, I found people amazingly well informed as to conditions in America and deeply convinced that work there was harder than at home and that there was nothing but hunger for the man who did not work.

The Steamship Agent.

Another cause of emigration of which one hears much is the solicitation of agents. My experience leads me to believe that in general the less a man knows about the matter the more he assures you it is all the work of the agent. *The importance of the agent is at the beginning of a movement.* He may help start emigration from new districts in the old country or to new districts in America, and once set rolling the ball goes of itself. So the old tailor already mentioned told how in the first days of the movement agents came from Bremen and traveled about and urged and promised.

We ourselves found in a peasant house not many miles away from Domazlice a circular from another firm urging emigration to the southern states, and especially to Texas, with letters from settlers there, and the pleasant assurance that the examination for entrance to the country was less strict in Galveston than in New York. This circular I have.

But the importance of these particular exciting causes tends to be greatly exaggerated. The occasional person who goes away under a cloud or lured by promises or baseless hopes is a drop in the bucket compared to the great number who go for the legitimate reason that they see a better opportunity in this country, and who are acting on the advice of relatives and friends on the spot and conversant with the situation on both sides.

Emigration Part of a Larger Internal Movement.

During the last half century Bohemia has been making the fateful transition from a mainly agricultural to a mainly industrial country, and this has been accompanied by the usual shifting of population from country to city, from agricultural to industrial districts. Of the whole population only about one-half are living where they were born, and doubtless a chance to earn more has been the cause of the move in most cases. A less gain in a neighbor-

A view of Tabor, formerly the stronghold of the Hussites; center of the district whence emigration to America is most prevalent.

ing district or country will ordinarily be preferred to the risks and expenses of going overseas, though this tendency may be modified by all sorts of cross currents of habits, hopes and affinities.

So in Bohemia, while those who cross the ocean practically all come to the United States, there are great numbers who go to Germany or to other parts of Austria, notably to Vienna, and especially to the industrial centres of Bohemia itself. For instance, the district about Neuhaus, which formerly sent emigrants to America, is now within the sphere of influence of the Austrian capital. There wages are much higher[1] but so is living, and there is said to be little margin for saving, so that nothing is brought home. Those who go to Vienna simply shut up the house for the time being. Those who go to New York sell.

Emigration to America is then only a part of a wider set of movements and directly related to opportunities nearer home. So the falling off of Bohemian emigration in the nineties was due not only to business depression in America but to a high tide in the iron and coal industries of Germany and Austria, and in 1890 or '91 Professor Busek was foretelling that in view of the general economic stagnation in those countries the emigration to America would increase (as it has done).

[1] Daily wage: masons—Neuhous, 48 cents; Vienna, 80 cents. Common laborers—Neuhous, 24 cents; Vienna, 40 cents.

In regard to the effect of emigration in the old country, the fact that Bohemian emigration is generally a permanent withdrawal of entire families, means that the reaction is comparatively slight. We have neither large numbers of returned "Americans" with a leaven of new ideas and habits, nor any very considerable influx of remittances. Doubtless many old persons are supported by children in America, though family life amongst the Bohemians is peculiarly tender and tenacious, and works to bring families together so far as humanly possible. In any case such contributions to living expenses have little effect on the general economy, and Bohemia receives no flow of money available as capital such as has produced very interesting results in Croatia, Galicia and the Slovak districts of Hungary.

The Cultural and Industrial Equipment of Immigrants.

As to the social class represented by Bohemian immigrants, the statistics of occupations of the American reports give the best clue. Taking the figures for 1905 the first noticeable fact is the very large proportion in skilled trades (over 38 per cent of these with occupations). This is much above the average (23 per cent), and twice that of the South Italian, for instance. The most numerous trades are, in this order, carpenters, tailors, miners, shoemakers and butchers. Except among the miners, a large part of these are probably country people, many of whom would

own their bit of land and combine farming with their trade.

The small trade or handicraft, organized under Austrian law in a more or less modernized gild, is a very widespread form of production in Bohemia. One of the quaintest sights that I saw there was the funeral procession of a butcher in which the masters of the trade proudly led the way in costume with great axes reared as symbols of the craft, followed by journeymen and apprentices. One felt one's self back in the Middle Ages.

The next largest class is that of servants (27 per cent among Bohemians as compared with 16 per cent for all immigrants). But while the servant class is above the average, the proportion of laborers among Bohemians (19 per cent) is hardly more than half what it is in the total group. The farming class is also relatively small (12 per cent, which is one-half the proportion for all immigrants). What is remarkable in this group among Bohemians is the large part registered as *farmers* as distinguished from *farm laborers*. The former make up nearly half, while in general they are only 12 per cent (among the south Italians only 7 per cent) of the farming class.

As regards literacy, I fancy the figures may be a surprise. Of all immigrants of fourteen years and over, those not able to both read and write were 26.2 per cent; among the German-speaking they were only 4.2; among the Bohemians (Czech-speaking) under 1.7; among Scandinavian (a proud record) under 0.6.

All of this is quite borne out by the impression one gets of Bohemians here or in Bohemia. The fact is that in development and conditions they rank with the immigrant from Northwest Europe. In spite of the struggle with the Germans, which is in a sense the master-thread in their whole history, this contact even though inimical has meant interpenetration and *rapprochement*. No other nationality is more self-conscious and patriotic, not to say chauvinistic, in its national feeling, and at the same time none begins to be so permeated with general European culture and so advanced economically.

But all gain means some loss, and the sentimental traveler, and perhaps not he alone, may be permitted to note with some regret that civilization here as elsewhere tends to wipe out the distinctive traits.

Bohemia, the national language, one of the richest and highly developed of the Slav linguistic family and the organ of a not unimportant literature, has indeed known a great renaissance in this century, but most of the old world ways which once gave the country a more special flavor are gone or going fast.

The towns are indeed picturesque and charming, a cluster of steep red roofs on a slope or in a dip of the hills beside a pond or a stream, and over all a church with the odd bulbous belfry so characteristic of these parts, or a castle, or a bastion of the former town walls. But, except in parts of Moravia and in the historic district about Domazlice, the original peasant dress is mainly obsolete—and yet, even in the Budweis market, how pretty were scarlet stockings and low slippers under the short petticoats; and everywhere among the women working in the fields, what flashes of the clear bright reds which all Slavs seem naturally to seek and instinctively to know how to use with rare effect.

The legends and superstitions, too, the ballads and pretty poetical customs, are becoming more and more matter for the folklorist, if not for the antiquarian.

And in this connection let me recommend that charming little classic *Grandmother*. The authoress, Bozena Nemec, one of the best-beloved of Bohemian writers, here weaves together reminiscences of her childhood (she was born in 1820), and gives us a succession of pictures—the pilgrimage, the wedding, the ordinary events of farm life—which are not only a mine for the student of comparative custom but the best possible introduction to Bohemian spirit and ways, as well as a restful and pleasing narrative for any gentle reader.[1]

Over and over again in our little travels my companion and I pointed out to one another this or that—"Don't you remember, Grandmother always did that, too," or "Grandmother explained this so."

That not all the old lore perishes even in America, at least in the first generation,

[1] *The Grandmother:* A story of country life in Bohemia by Bozena Nemec, translated, with a biographical sketch of the author, by Frances Gregor. McClurg, 1892.

MARKET DAY
IN
BUDWEIS

A PILGRIMAGE

Scene at the shrine of the Virgin at Hostein in Moravia.

The pilgrimages to Hostein draw people from all the neighboring parts of Moravia and from Hungary just across the frontier whence these lads may have come. There was recently an outbreak of typhoid due to drinking the holy water at this shrine.

I had a chance to observe in a stay of some months in the family of a Bohemian workingman in New York. I never could hear often enough an old song, sung properly at Twelfth Night, when the boys go about the village masquerading as the three kings, one of course as a blackamoor. I was especially struck with the way the nursery rhymes paralleled ours while yet they were very distinct. There were variants of "Knock at the door, peep in" and of "Pat-a-cake," a combination of "Creep mouse" and "This little pig went to market," and an amusing string of verses that suggested "This is the house that Jack built," besides others, quite fresh, often with charming melodies.[1]

Seriously speaking, of course, the fact that Bohemia is less picturesque than it once was means that the chasm to bridge between them and us is less wide. After the first strangeness on both sides had worn off and the barriers of the intense shyness and reserve of Bohemians had given way I had peculiarly little sense of being an alien in the family I spoke of, and this was due, not to the likeness of nursery rhymes, but to the fundamentally similar outlook on life, to our having a culture, education, religion, fundamentally similar in spite of differences of race, class, sect and all the rest of it.

[1] BOHEMIAN NURSERY RHYMES

[To be said pointing to the eyes, cheeks, etc., with appropriate pantomime]

"Here are two little candles, (eyes)
"Here are two little cushions, (cheeks)
"Here is the pulpit,
"Here is the priest,
"Here is the little grave,
"Here is the little bell, ting a ling a ling."

* * *

"The little mouse was cooking porridge, (tickling the palm of the child's hand)
"In an iron sauce pan;
"When it was done,
"She gave it around;
"To this one she gave it with a little spoon (counting on the fingers and toes)
"To this one she gave it with a little fork,
"To this one she gave it with a little stirrer,
"To this one she gave it with a little ladle,
"And this one she did not give any,
"And she ran and she ran to camp (running the fingers over the child's side and tickling)
"For the sack of ginger
'Till she got here" (tickling under the arm.)

* * *

"There was a little house,
"In the little house a little table,
"On the little table a little dish,
"In the little dish a little water,
"In the little water a little fish,
"Where is the little fish?
"Pussy ate it.
"Where is pussy?
"She ran into the woods.
"Where are the woods?
"They are burned to powder.
"Where is the powder?
"The water carried it away.
"Where is the water?
"The cattle drank it up.
"Where are the cattle?
"The masters ate them.
"Where are the masters?
"They lie in the churchyard."

Can the State Afford to Pay the Cost of Overworking its Children

Scott Nearing
Secretary Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee

In such a republic as ours the one thing we cannot afford to neglect is the problem of turning out *decent* citizens. The future of the nation depends upon the citizenship of the generations to come; the children of to-day are those who to-morrow will shape the destiny of our land, and we cannot afford to neglect them.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

I

"And on his back the burden of the world."

"What time do you go to work in the morning?" I asked a little girl, three feet eight inches high as she was walking toward a box factory at 7.15 A. M.

"Seven-thirty," she replied.

"How long do you get for dinner," I asked her.

"Half an hour."

"And what time do you stop work in the evening?"

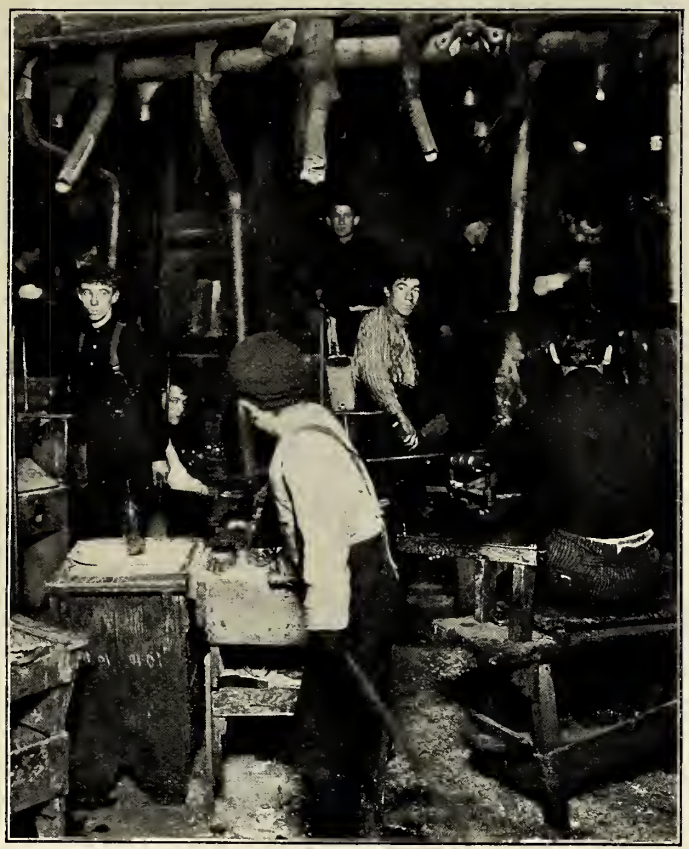
"Half-past eight."

"Don't they give you any time for supper?"

"Oh, yes, we get five minutes."

This girl was working twelve and one-half hours a day, eight hours after twelve-thirty; in that day she turned in the edge of nine thousand box covers.

Joe W. sets pins in a bowling alley. He weighs a little over fifty pounds, and says that he is ten years old. Beside the bowling alley and connected with it by a wide passageway is a saloon. Every night until twelve o'clock this little fellow sets



THE NIGHT SHIFT.

One week the boys work all day, the next week all night. But night work has its drawbacks, as one Hungarian boy of 14 said after trying it for a year, "You get two much sleepy and then you have burn."

A DELIVERY GIRL.

She works for a fashionable tailor. The photograph is taken in front of Philadelphia's five and one-half million-dollar-hotel, where business men eat lunch at $3.50 per plate. This girl gets less than $3.00 per week.

the pins at the end of the alley. His chest is flat and his shoulders already bent.

A boy who was selling peanuts, candy and popcorn in the gallery of a low theater told me that he was twelve years old. Between the acts he pushed around his great basket full of eatables; during the performance he laid his red head on the handle of the basket and slept. When the boys in the galleries of theaters grow older they amuse themselves, after the play has dismissed, by robbing the "drunks."

The boys in the glass houses work all day one week and all night the next. They cannot go to day school or night school. They grow up ignorant and lead an irregular life, which is begun at eleven or twelve, the time when the need of regu-

LIZZIE G.

Her certificate says she is fourteen. During the week ending November 18, 1905, she worked 67 hours in this factory. The law fixes the limit at 60 hours.

SCAVENGERS.

Two Italian Boys, 10 and 9 Years of Age, Starting Out for a Day's Work. Wednesday, November 11, 1905.

A SHIRT FACTORY.

On Sunday, November 5, 1905, this factory worked from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M., making a total for the week of 68 hours—8 hours over the legal limit.

FRANK M.

He has not been to school for two or three years. He washes glasses in a saloon at $1.50 a week. He is 12 years old.

larity is the greatest. Joe has been working in a glass house since he was ten; he is now thirteen and cannot write his own name. The father died from drink; two big sisters and a big brother earn $15 to $18 a week. In her best moods the mother can drink all of this and look for more, so Joe goes on working. Sam, thirteen years of age, works five nights a week in the machine shop, twelve hours each night. He is pale and thin and trembles constantly. His father, a big strong man, "is not working just at present," nor is he likely to be while Sam can earn $3.50 to $4 a week.

Not only do the children commence work at an early age, but they work very long hours. In Philadelphia the employés in the City Hall begin their work at 9 A. M. and stop at 3 P. M., with an hour for dinner. On Saturday they stop at noon, making a week of 33 hours. The labor unions are waging a fierce battle to obtain an eight-hour day and a forty-four-hour week. In the department stores and law offices employés are called upon to work 50 hours a week. The average day laborer has a week of 58 hours; he is a grown man with broad shoulders and powerful muscles. In Pennsylvania our law says that the child shall not work more than "12 hours in any one day," or "60 hours in any one week."

In many cases even this limit is exceeded. A large shirt factory started on Sunday, November 5 to work from 7 in the morning until 6 in the evening. That week the factory worked 68 hours. When the inspector visited the place he found five girls who stated their ages at fourteen, but none had a certificate; and this was Sunday. Three months before Christmas one of the largest candy factories in the city started to work overtime from 61 to 66 hours a week. The messenger boys worked in turn all night, and in some offices every other Sunday, 63 to 66 hours a week. Last week a boy stated to an inspector that he worked one day from 2 P. M. to 6 A. M.—16 consecutive hours, and part of them at night.

It is not only the boys of thirteen or fourteen who are working these long hours; as a rule the factories working the longest time under the worst conditions are the factories which employ the smallest girls. They start to work at twelve or thirteen. If they cannot get a certificate of their own, and if the employer insists on a certificate, they use one which their big sister obtains for them. One woman in Manayunk paid a neighbor's child twenty-five cents to go with her before a notary and impersonate her own daughter, who was only eleven; but this was under the old law. All their lives, until they are married, the girls live in the factory. When they marry, as the majority eventually do, their husbands spend their evenings on the street because the girls have never learned to keep a clean and orderly house. The men prefer to eat their meals away from home because their wives cannot cook. The children are ill-cared for and ill-fed, and the provisions which are bought are used in the most wasteful manner because life in a factory

does not give the kind of instruction that will make a good housekeeper. The children which these women bring into the world are stunted physically, and mentally, and morally, because their parents have no high physical or mental or moral qualities to transmit to them.

II

"There are none so blind as they that will not see."

The child which develops normally makes the highest type of man. The child which spends its early years, while the body is still plastic, in hard work, is dwarfed physically, loses all opportunity for education and is taken away from any home influence that might govern its life activity.

To-day England is reaping what she sowed in the early employment of her children in the cotton mills back in 1800. When the English soldiers were called upon in the 50's to defeat the armies of the Czar they found no difficulty in doing it in a most glorious manner. After two more generations of factory life they were called upon to defeat the farmers of the Transvaal, and they failed dismally. It was the colonial troops, the Canadians and Australians, who won the war. What was the reason? In Manchester, the center of English factory life, 11,000 men were examined for the army and 10,000 were rejected. Then the standards were lowered; 12,292 more men were examined, and 32 per cent were rejected because their chests were too small, they were too short in stature, they weighed too little. Last summer a Manchester factory inspector said: "You musn't expect to find any well-grown children in Manchester. The factory life of the last hundred years has produced a stunted race." A correspondent of one of the Philadelphia papers writes concerning London:

> There has been evolved in London a race with strongly marked characteristics, with alien features and habits, stunted in size, sallow complexioned, dark-haired. Its normal sense is blunted, its mentality is low. It has even evolved a speech of its own.

Can we not with profit think twice in the face of such overwhelming evidence of the evils resulting from the early employment of children?

A full-grown man is working in a Philadelphia shirt factory for $3 a week. If he asks for more he will lose the position to some woman or child. The children of such men are fed and clothed on six or seven cents each per day. In winter they are cold; all the year they are hungry. A steel mill employé, working alone, can make as much as a cotton mill operative when assisted by his entire family. Thus the labor of women and children, competing with the men, lowers the standard of wages and living.

In Pennsylvania we cry out because there are 20,000 children under twelve years of age working in the southern mills. But there are more children under sixteen working in the mills in Pennsylvania than in all of the southern states taken together. If Pennsylvania's working children were to stand shoulder to shoulder, with no space between them, the line would reach more than twenty-two miles. If one of them were to pass your door each minute day and night, it would take three months for the entire number to go by.

Can Pennsylvania pay the price? Can she afford to work these children now at the expense of future loss of industrial efficiency and good citizenship? That is the price which she must pay if she continues to overwork her army of child laborers. A race with dwarfed bodies, low minds and bad morals cannot be a dominant one, either industrially or politically. Can any other kind of a race be produced when the mothers start as little girls of thirteen and working twelve hours a day support the burden of our industrial community?

The Present Needs of the Adult Blind

F. Park Lewis, M. D.,
Chairman of the New York State Commission for Investigating the Condition of the Blind, 1903-4
Buffalo, N. Y.

The present appears to be the psychological moment for organized effort in behalf of the blind. The modern movement which promises to become general is based upon the obvious fact that while an exceedingly valuable asset is taken away when sight is lost, life is not necessarily bankrupted thereby. It is frequently possible by readjusting the remaining forces and faculties of the individual to still win success when failure otherwise would be inevitable. For every blind man placed upon his feet and made independent and self-sustaining, the gain to the state is enormous. He becomes an object lesson, an inspiration to those similarly afflicted, a help and an encouragement to the disheartened and hopeless. The blind man who, while still well and strong, becomes a pauper, is not only a burden upon the charitable, but a pernicious element in the community in that he unconsciously influences the weak and the lazy to beg, when they should work, to lean, when they should stand upright.

While among the blind there are always a few who, by reason of natural gifts or unusual opportunities, will succeed without outside help, the large majority are merely average men and women. When blindness comes suddenly the man is at first stunned, then confused, then appalled by the apparent hopelessness of his position. He had always depended upon his eyes to guide his every movement; and when he finds that sight is gone, there comes a sense of utter helplessness. His usual movements are imperfectly co-ordinated and his attitude and gait take on an exaggerated awkwardness. In the manual laborer, the brain action is not usually rapid. The routine muscular movements under the guidance of the eyes have become largely automatic. When one element of the associated functions is taken away the movement of all becomes hesitant and uncertain. Then rapidly follows loss of self-confidence. The man can no longer do the simple things that he had all of his life done, although sight is not required to do them. He cannot walk freely and rapidly on an unobstructed surface, although he is assured that he may do so without danger. He must be *readjusted* to the altered position in the world in which he finds himself. It is the critical period in his new life. He must be taught to believe in himself. He must find himself.

There is a tide in the affairs of blind men which must be taken at the flood. After blindness becomes an established fact in the adult every month in which he is allowed to remain an aimless sit-by-the-fire makes more difficult his ultimate reclamation. It is at this exact time that friendly intervention is most readily accepted and is most useful. He must be shown that blindness and helplessness are by no means synonyms. He has never before this been interested in blind people. At best he has seen them on street corners and has glanced at them with pity, and possibly, as many do, has dropped a penny in the hat bowing to the superstition thereby to earn merit; but he has never dreamed of a blind man working with his hands or with his brain, or both, at some remunerative employment. He has yet to learn that men who cannot see can yet make beautiful willow baskets that bring good round prices and that blind women can and do weave exquisite fabrics fit for household use. He is at the crossing of the ways, but he is not going to remain there indefinitely. One road leads to activity, to potential, if not actual, happiness—to occupation, man's mental, moral and physical salvation—the other leads to apathy, mendicancy, loss of self-respect, often loss of character. Which road he will take after a comparatively short period of hesitation will depend partly on the man himself, largely on the inspiration given him from outside. He must have his belief in himself reestablished. He must be shown what the blind can do, what *he* can do—*how* he can do it. All of this new knowledge must be brought to him and he must be made to feel that the world has a place for him which he must be fitted to fill.

But, for this, training is necessary. The old habits must give place to new ones. The old trade, that of a stone mason perhaps, or of a carpenter, must be exchanged for the new one for which eyes are not so necessary—that of a broom maker or a chair caner. Here, unfortunately, at this critical point in his career, he turns to us in vain. We have schools for the *young* blind, but for the man or woman to whom this frightful affliction has come—up to the present time—no adequate provision has been made.

The Industrial School.

The immediate need is the industrial school. The blind man is facing a new life. He is as unfitted as a child to meet it alone. He must be taught to use his hands and his head in a new way. He must be inspired by being brought in touch with other blind workers who have succeeded. His aptitudes must be studied and the work for which he is best suited chosen for him. Then he must be encouraged, set to work, taught the trade in which he is most likely to succeed. Shop schools should be established in various centers of population. They should be maintained by the state and should be *work* schools simply. They should be under one general and uniform supervision.

The state then having rescued its unfortunate citizen, the duty of his rehabilitation remains with his fellows.

Associations like that recently formed, the New York State Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, under the presidency of Dr. Lyman Abbott and with the inspiring co-operation of Miss Helen Keller, should be founded in every large center in the United States. The results obtained from one experiment station, like that in Cambridge under the original and enthusiastic direction of Mr. Campbell, could be utilized by all, but the local interest of the citizens of a community in their own blind, their personal encouragement, their individual efforts in finding a market for the products of their own workmen would be necessary for its success. The cry of these people is "Not alms, but work," and a duty rests upon us to see that this demand on the part of its unfortunate and dependent citizens be fairly met.

The State and Its Blind Citizens.

The duty of the state toward those who are or will be its wards is very clear. It is at once a broad humanity and a good economic policy to prevent mendicancy and to encourage personal endeavor. A man of average intelligence and physical strength, but without means, who loses his sight at thirty years of age, may live till he reaches the full three-score years and ten. Without special training for some kind of work this means forty years of dependency. To maintain such a man will cost at least two hundred and fifty dollars per year, and during his lifetime ten thousand dollars will have been paid out to maintain his almost useless existence. The amount required to sustain him in a poorhouse for one year would be sufficient to give him the training necessary to make him largely, if not wholly, self-supporting. It is a measure, therefore, of financial wisdom on the part of the state to give him the little help now, in order that it may not be obliged to give him the greater help through his whole life long. The state should then establish and maintain in such centers as may be deemed best practical work schools in which the blind of both sexes shall have an opportunity of learning some one of the industries that experience has shown them capable of successfully following. These should not be allowed to become homes and only those should be admitted to their benefits who are mentally and physically capable of profiting by a limited course of instruction. Many of the blind require charitable aid, but this should be administered through other channels. The Industrial School for the Blind and the eleemosynary institution must be permanently and absolutely separate and distinct.

Before determining where and how such schools should be established, using New York state as an example, the work begun by the commission of preparing an accurate census of the blind of the state should be completed. This should be conducted under the direction of a careful statistician. Every necessary detail concerning every blind individual in the state should be recorded; the age at which sight was lost, the cause of blindness, the character and extent of the scholastic or

other training, together with such other facts as would be of use, should be on file and available for reference. This should be the starting point from which subsequent work for the blind could be conducted on modern scientific lines.

The blind are so frequently distrustful of themselves that they often need personal encouragement and advice before they are ready to undertake to help themselves, and a field officer employed for this purpose has been found invaluable.

The Prevention of Blindness.

Even more important is organized effort directed toward the prevention of blindness. It is a fact not generally known that the carefully tabulated statistics of a large number of observers have shown that at least 33.75 per cent of recorded cases of blindness were certainly avoidable, while 38.75 per cent were possibly avoidable. "It is admitted," says Dr. I. Minis Hays, in Oliver & Norris's *System of Diseases of the Eye,* a leading and standard authority, "that if blindness could have been avoided in one-third of the cases in which avoidability was regarded as uncertain—and this is certainly a conservative estimate—then blindness would have been prevented in 46.66 per cent of the whole number of cases tabulated by the above observers."

The ophthalmia of infancy which contributes over ten per cent to the number of eyes lost annually, and a still larger proportion of those permanently injured by scars, is in almost every instance an absolutely preventable disease, directly due to germ infection and curable in practically every case seen before destruction of tissue has occurred. The blindness which follows is in almost every instance due either to the neglect or ignorance of those having the case in charge. New York state has made it a misdemeanor on the part of midwives to fail to report these cases and sends them leaflets in several languages advising them of the proper methods of procedure to follow. The Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind in Massachusetts have appointed a dispensary visitor who personally is brought in touch with those in the public clinics who are threatened with blindness and whose advice and assistance, given in the right way and at the right time, are of incalculable value. It is a measure to be highly commended and generally adopted. From the medical side, too, much can be done. There should be a wider knowledge concerning the more dangerous eye diseases and their right methods of treatment. The more general use of preventive measures would almost absolutely abolish infantile ophthalmia, while trachoma should be rigidly quarrantined. Co-operation on the part of the infirmary staff with the district nurse would enable her to follow up the more dangerous cases to see that the prescribed treatment was rightly carried out and that the patient came back again until formally dismissed—for it often happens that failing to realize his peril he is indifferent to his danger until it is too late. To this end organized effort is necessary.

To accomplish the measures outlined the interests of the blind in each state should be governed by local conditions. It would seem desirable, however, that there should be generally established state boards of control of the blind. Such boards, serving without pay, could have prepared a complete census of the blind, maintain a system of registration, establish as needed properly constructed training schools, separate the industrious and the workers from the lazy and the paupers, make suitable provision for the care of the infants and the aged, establish home teaching, and finally through the co-operation of the medical profession and of organized charity, devise means for lessening the abnormal amount of unnecessary blindness.

Such a work would mean the saving of a multitude of lives from shipwreck, the saving to the state of its wealth by making earners where are now dependents, and the application of modern scientific methods to one of our most important social problems.

The Scope of Future Work to Improve the Condition of the Blind

Charles F. F. Campbell

Agent Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind

Interest in the blind is becoming more and more general and the question is frequently asked: "What can we do in our state, city or town to help in the movement?" Almost every state in the union makes provision for part of its population with defective vision, but since no one state is doing everything that can be done, it is the purpose of this article to give an outline of the possible scope for future efforts to improve the condition of the blind, grounded on the best work which is being done in different places.

State Board. In every state there ought to be a central organization or commission, preferably a state board or commission, for promoting the interests of the blind; this body should oversee the varied branches of the work for ameliorating the conditions of the blind. Although this may not be possible in some states, co-operation should be the watchword. To this board should be responsible those in charge of the work pertaining to:

1. A registration and information bureau.
2. The prevention of infantile blindness.
3. The care of children under school age.
4. Education.
5. Industrial training.
6. Workshops.
7. Employment bureaus.
8. Home teaching.
9. Distribution of reading matter in tactile print.
10. The care of the aged.

Parts of such a comprehensive scheme are already being carried out in some places under one board, as for example, in Connecticut, where there is a Board of Education for the Blind, under which there is grouped a nursery, kindergarten, grammar school, industrial institute and employment bureau. In Michigan, there are two state institutions, one for the educational work and the other a combination of industrial school, employment bureau and library for distributing books in raised types. In the state of New York there exists, for the blind, a nursery for blind babies, a state and private school, a state and a private home, an excellent privately supported workshop (with boarding-house under the same management); a pension fund and an association for promoting the interests of the blind. The New York legislature has now under consideration a bill for the establishment of an industrial school. Both New York and Massachusetts are alive to the fact that a greater development on these lines is needed and have had commissions investigating the subject.

Registration and Information Bureau. The first duty of the proposed board should be to prepare and maintain a register of all the blind in the state. Recent investigation shows that, as a rule, the blind are kept in the background by their families. Once started, however, such a register can be maintained at small expense, for a law should be passed requiring physicians to report to the board all cases of defective vision. The importance of immediately learning of the person who loses his or her sight cannot be exaggerated, for the relatives and friends, to say nothing of the individual, are so overcome at what seems to be "the end of everything" that they have no idea what to do. This is just the time when one of the board's agents can come to the rescue with encouragement, advice and practical help.

The social service committee of the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind employs such an agent, who is a woman and a doctor, two most important requisites. She is in daily communication with the Eye and Ear Infirmary and other places where blindness may occur. If a baby is reported "discharged," and the agent finds the home conditions not likely to promise proper care, she visits the mother and gives practical suggestions for the care of the little one. If the home conditions are impossible, the infant can be sent to the Nursery for Blind Babies. Possibly the patient is a child who ought to be in a school for the blind. The agent is prepared to see that the necessary steps are taken to place the child in that school. Unfortunately,

with the exception of Connecticut, education is not compulsory in the United States for children of defective vision. A bill for the compulsory education of the blind is now before the Massachusetts legislature. If a recently blind adult is reported to the board, the agent can almost immediately tell whether it is a case for industrial training, "home teaching," or relief. No large sums of money are required for such work. Even when "relief" may be the only alternative, the agent, in Massachusetts, frequently needs merely to set the machinery in motion to utilize the local agencies which exist for helping the sighted in similar circumstances.

Prevention of Blindness. It is well recognized that a considerable number of those who become blind in infancy would not have lost their sight had proper precautions been taken by those who had the care of the children. Some of the states have therefore passed laws to provide for the prevention of blindness. The following is the section of the revised laws relating to opthalmia of the newly-born, passed last year by the Massachusetts legislature:

> Should one or both eyes of an infant become inflamed, swollen and red, and show an unnatural discharge at any time within two weeks after its birth, it shall be the duty of the nurse, relative or other attendant having charge of such infant, to report in writing within six hours thereafter, to the board of health of the city or town in which the parents of the infant reside, the fact that such inflammation, swelling and redness of the eyes and unnatural discharge exist. On receipt of such report, or of notice of the same symptoms given by a physician as provided by the following section, the board of health shall take such immediate action as it may deem necessary, in order that blindness may be prevented. Whoever violates the provisions of this section shall be punished by a fine of not more than one hundred dollars. . . . . If one or both eyes of an infant whom or whose mother he (a physician) is called to visit become inflamed, swollen and red, and show an unnatural discharge within two weeks after the birth of such infant, he shall immediately give notice thereof in writing over his own signature to the selectmen or board of health of the town; and if he refuses or neglects to give such notice, he shall forfeit not less than fifty nor more than two hundred dollars for each offense.

The Massachusetts Association has sent copies of the above to a selected list of physicians, to local boards of health and aldermen of all cities and towns, and to many others.

Nurseries for Blind Babies. While no one would willingly take a baby from its mother, no one could possibly wish to leave a poor little sightless tot at the mercy of the surroundings in which some of them are often found. Frequently the relatives are the most unwise friends of the blind infant. The sympathetic parent, knowing no better, excuses that which in a seeing child, would not be overlooked for a moment; and, as a result, bad habits of all kinds are contracted long before the child reaches school. Much time and money will be saved when the state pays more attention to its blind infants.

Education. As provision is made for the education of blind children in almost every state in the union, little remains to be done along this line except, perhaps, to be sure that the schools are obtaining the best results. The purpose of every school for the blind, while equipping its pupils for the life they are to lead, ought also to aim definitely to make its graduates self-supporting. If the present system is not accomplishing this it is high time the matter should be discussed. More should not be expected of the blind child than is expected of the seeing. Most blind children come from that class from which is recruited the vast army of industrial workers. It is unreasonable to try to make professionals out of those who, had they sight, would become artisans or laborers. In the writer's opinion the future successful schools for the blind will not draw their inspiration from the present public school systems, but from such institutes as Hampton and Tuskegee.

Industrial Institutes, Workshops and Employment Bureaus. There are great possibilities for future development in the industrial training of the blind. According to the latest Washington figures, which are probably conservative, there are 42,396 blind persons in the United States between the ages of twenty and fifty-nine. If the recent returns for Massachusetts hold for

the rest of the country, at least fifty-five per cent of these become blind after twenty, too late to be admitted to the schools for the blind. So far as can be learned, barely 600, less than one-fortieth, of this group of 24,396 are in workshops for the blind.

The distinction between an industrial institute, shop school, or whatever it may be called, and a workshop or factory for the blind is of the utmost importance. One of the reasons why workshops for the blind have not paid has been that charity, correction, education and business have been hopelessly mixed. An industrial institute should be a place where the many who are unqualified to benefit by the academic and musical training now freely given in the schools for the blind, and also those who lose their sight too late to be admitted to the schools, may be taught a trade by which they can become entirely or partly self-supporting—a place where each worker is considered individually and is helped to do that for which he is best fitted. It is folly to attempt to cast all workers in the same mould. There ought to be fifty lines of industry open to the blind, instead of less than ten. Only enough goods should be sold at the institute to make the workers proficient in the line of work to which they are best suited. As soon as a sufficient number of artisans in one trade have been trained it should be the duty of the employment bureau to help them become established.

The following illustration will help to explain what the writer hopes to see done in all parts of the country. During the investigation of the Massachusetts Commission its agent found in one town a group of men who had learned, some at school, some from the "home teaching," how to reseat chairs. After they had returned home they also learned, to their sorrow, that it is one thing to reseat a chair, and quite another to find the chairs to reseat. Not one of the men had regular employment. The agent interested some of the women of the community, who were invited to come to Boston and talk over possible plans with the social service committee of the Massachusetts Association. As a result, without expense to the state, association or town, two rooms have been rented, one for mattress work and one for chairs, the latter room being shown in the accompanying cut. This group of workers seems now in a fair way to build up a good business. Other groups or individuals, with very little help, might be started in different lines of work in many other places. It is workshops of this kind, not unwieldy, heavily subsidized institutions, which are neither factories nor schools, for which we should work. Of course, with a large number of successful workshops established, a few apprentices might be profitably trained in each shop. An employment bureau, beside doing the above kinds of work, would be of immediate value to the existing schools in helping to establish their graduates. Organists, soloists, piano tuners, all have to meet the prejudice of the general public. Alone it is frequently impossible for the best trained blind persons to do this. An influential bureau, with a competent agent, would in many cases turn the scale in favor of the earnest, capable and willing blind worker.

Home Teaching. "Home teaching," teaching the blind to read in their homes, was begun fifty years ago in England. The first extensive work of the kind in America was started in Philadelphia at private expense in 1882. It is encouraging to see that since Massachusetts in 1901 began to support home teaching with state appropriations, Rhode Island has followed suit, to be followed, it is hoped, by other states. This kind of work is a splendid occupation for some of the graduates of schools for the blind. With one or two able head teachers the agent of the board, by use of the register, can map out the entire state. Many of the blind girls return, after graduating, to their homes, which are often within a few miles of groups of adult blind persons. The head teachers instead of traveling hundreds of miles to teach a limited number of adults could, in periodical visits, plan and inspect the work of these assistants. In the future we hope to see a course in home teaching in our schools for the blind.

Care for the Aged. Fully forty per cent of the adult blind are over sixty years of age, and less has been done for the aged than for any other group. The

question of pensions and homes for the blind is far too lengthy to admit of adequate consideration here. In general, however, it is safe to say that what is deemed best for the aged seeing will be best for the aged blind. As with the sighted, it is not a problem of work but one of care. The board, with the aid of its well-kept register, competent agents and home teachers, is in a position to know exactly the condition and needs of these people. Instead of giving out lump sums, as is now done in some parts of the country, the same amount of money could be more wisely and helpfully expended. Often an agent can arouse the interest of a local community to care for its own; when this is impossible, steps can be taken so that the funds shall not be wasted. Homes for the able-bodied under fifty years of age seem to be inexcusable. When properly trained, a blind girl can be an excellent helper about any household, and the money spent in putting healthy blind girls in homes had better be expended in placing them in families where they will be welcomed. Even if unable to be of any service in a family, many blind men and women could be boarded for little more than it costs to keep them in a home. No person should be sent to the poorhouse because he is blind, but, on the other hand, blindness should not keep him from where, under similar circumstances, he would be if sighted. For some of the feeble and aged, homes are doubtless inevitable, but let us hope they may be cottage homes, in the country or by the seaside, near enough to a city so that concerts, theaters and churches are not inaccessible.

Field Work Among the Blind in Massachusetts

Lucy Wright

Boston, Mass.

In speaking of the condition of the blind in Massachusetts, I shall venture merely to outline a few things suggested to me, personally, by a year's work as agent for the Massachusetts Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind. This work included personal visits to 500 or more blind persons, the study of 535 additional records made by the Association for Promoting the Interests of the Adult Blind, the state home teachers and a few local committees and, finally, a comparison of this material with 2,802 of the records gathered by the state census of this year.

The first and very significant sign which the field-worker discovers among the blind is their welcome to the least straw of hope for a larger life and greater activity, and their readiness to be of practical service in investigation. "Questions!" many a one exclaimed, "if answering questions will help the blind, I'll answer as many questions as you can ask!" One of the first remarks with which I was greeted, by the mother of a blind boy of eighteen, was: "The state must be good to send you way down here to ask after my boy, and it's true the blind need somebody to find out what would help them and what wouldn't." Near the end of the year, a keen old man met me at the door, saying, "I heard months ago that you were coming and I've been waiting and watching every day to tell you what you ought to know about the blind." So it was throughout the year—they were keeping lists, making suggestions, referring needs and even offering their services as guides about the town. Often they discriminated with care and summarized the general situation in a sensible fashion.

In one city, a successful business man insisted: "You must not put me down as a blind printer. I have set up my own business card and I believe it to be a good one; but the truth is, I did nearly a life's work in another's employ before I lost my sight. After that I said to myself, 'I can teach my sons the business and manage it myself,' and here I am, doing well, but I am not a blind printer; I am a printer who became blind." A man, blind since the age of four, says: "Where the blind man is different from other men to-day is that he needs more than any other the confidence and 'backing' of his neighbors, which he hasn't got; he needs more confidence in himself than anyone else, and usually he needs to get rid of the idea that he is fit only for the so-called 'higher callings.'" A younger man, blind from

boyhood, a successful business man and piano tuner, says: "My advice to a blind man is, 'make the life and interests of the seeing yours.' " Having thus at the start the co-operation of the group of people it is necessary to understand in order to help, there is an unlimited possibility for a full and accurate investigation.

If anything were lacking to spur on an investigation, it is supplied in field work among the blind by the individual instances of courage, ability and need. Perhaps the most convincing thing of all is the accomplishments of the blind under the most difficult combinations of circumstance. A man of thirty-five, blind since three days old, through the ignorance of his family deprived of education, and although of sound mind and body always treated as an invalid, is struggling, under the guidance of the state home teacher, to learn to read raised letters and to do cane seating. His muscles are, however, so undeveloped that he progresses very slowly. Another pupil of one of our state home teachers is a keen old Scotch woman who became blind at the age of seventy-five. She has learned to read the raised types, and has covered a list of something like fifty volumes. At the time of the agent's visit she was nearly eighty, and had been reading, in parallel periods, the history of Scotland and the history of England. Two persons, a man and a woman, each near middle age, actually rejoiced in the five kinds of type, because of the mental exercise it gave them, when in want of occupation, to turn from one type to the other. A gifted lady, blind from the age of one and one-half years, assures me that a very important part of her education was attending public school as a child. Her mother went over every lesson with her and she remained, through primary and intermediate school, at the head of her class. This lady is now custodian of a library for the blind and meets the need for fresh literature by writing out in Braille, with her own hand, recent stories and poems—very welcome to persons losing their sight later in life, who have already read much of the literature available in raised types.

In another city a young girl of seventeen or eighteen, of very rare character and ability, eager for the life of seeing children, has, after six years' training at a school for the blind, entered the public grammar school, then the high school, and this year graduates among the first in her class at one of our best and largest high schools. In one of our larger almshouses, a homeless graduate of our school for the blind, a young woman of twenty-five, of good character and ability, but with no special talent for music or literature, cheerfully helped with the house work and won the help and good wishes of the officers. As she herself said: "It is enough to be in an almshouse when you are old," and the officers and she rejoiced equally when work was found for her outside the institution by the Massachusetts Association.

Another Perkin's graduate, a refined and delicate woman, blind from the age of fourteen, went to the almshouse in one of our small towns to be near her aged father as long as he should live. During her stay there the state home teacher visited a group of friends among the blind of another city and raised money enough to send her a typewriter. With this she could correspond with her friends and earn a little money by addressing envelopes. In a manufacturing city still another Perkin's graduate, a strong, capable woman, could be self-supporting at cane-seating chairs if there were sufficient work. She is an unusually rapid worker and could take in $2 a day. Recently, however, cane-seating was introduced in vacation schools of that city and she was asked to teach the pupils. She tried it for a week and then, believing that the work should be reserved for the blind, gave up her position.

In one of our larger cities, a man of forty-one, totally blind since the age of twenty-five, had learned in part a tailor's trade before his blindness, and now earns at certain seasons of the year from $10 to $12 a week sewing fur on slippers. He works at this at least fifteen hours a day, oftener from 5 A. M. to 11 P. M., except Saturday afternoons, when he studies raised types, and Sundays, when he rests. He is paid one and one-half and two cents a piece and can average 200 pieces a day when the work allows. The week of my visit he had earned only $9.28 because of slack

work, but he was glad at that time of rest for his hands, which were becoming so hard and stiff as to make the reading of raised types more and more difficult. Out of his earnings this man must pay his board, as his home is in a town where there is no work for him; save money for the seasons when there is no work, and pay something on the mortgage on his house. Seeing such instances as this steadily increases one's belief in the greater possibilities for the blind, when the favorable conditions of training and public confidence shall be given them.

Assured of the co-operation and of the ability and need of the blind themselves, the success of investigation and the outlook for future work seems to depend next upon securing co-operation in the communities where the blind live. Now and then the interest is there, waiting for an outlet, and if it is not, there is nothing so convincing as the results of searching out the blind of your own town. In each section public officers and private individuals are equally sure there are few if any blind among them. Where a leading physician, after years of service, assured us there were just three blind persons, there were, as a matter of fact, at least sixteen.

The Opportunities for Local Help. The experiments of the year suggest how necessary local help is to secure in the first place the foundation of a thorough knowledge of any given field. For example: In a city of about 62,000, a list five years old gives thirty-two adult blind persons. This is cut down one-half by deaths, removals, etc. By the co-operation of a committee, inquiries through public officers, institutions and private individuals the list, including eleven children, grew to fifty-two; with later additions from the state census the total list for that city, for this period of one year, is increased to eighty-nine. Similar statements could be made of other cities. The relation of the community to the blind seems, moreover, to be second only in importance to the matter of industrial training, for even with the advantage of industrial training the blind are still comparatively helpless until their ability is recognized by the public. Exactly because the blind man needs, in addition to special training, "backing," furnished preferably by his family and his own community, is their co-operation needed from the start. The fact is, too, that the need of special training and "backing" is the chief thing the blind have in common, for otherwise they are as individual as any other group of human beings, and, save for their common needs, are hardly to be classed together. For this very reason, because there are as many problems as there are blind people, the problems must be worked out locally and it is an error to believe that any one movement can change the condition, unless it is a movement which makes it possible to work out problem by problem in co-operation with the families and communities of the blind.

The year's work suggests, too, that problems be worked out entirely by local energy. The most immediate use to which local committees have put their efforts has been naturally in the cause of blind children, securing medical treatment, special training at home or admission to schools and in general studying the question of the treatment of children with defective eyesight, etc. One committee took in their charge a child with eyesight seriously defective from birth, placed him in the care of a specialist, and in the meantime tried the possibility of educating him in a special class for defectives. It was found that he could not be educated as a seeing child and he is now a promising pupil in the school for the blind. Another committee took in their care two children, a brother and sister; the girl totally blind, uneducated and in wretched health from inactivity. Under the care of a physician she has improved in health, and proves a bright pupil under the training of a Perkin's School graduate. Her health and the objections of her parents still delay her being sent away to school. In the meantime, the brother's eyesight has been so improved by care that it is hoped he can be educated as a seeing child in the public schools.

In the matter of work for adults, experiments also suggest how much can be done by local co-operation. In one of our smaller cities a committee has made their special charge three young men,

one a skilled mechanic of thirty-five, who became blind by accident at thirty-two. The committee did not succeed personally in finding work for this young man, but their efforts to do so resulted in a thorough study of the industries of that town, and the realization that even when employers have work which can be done by the blind they have yet to be convinced of the wisdom of experimenting with it. However, now at the end of the year the company with whom the man worked at the time of his accident has given him work running an elevator, at which he earns $9 a week. This same committee has also succeeded in interesting in work a young man who became blind at about twenty, who had fallen into idle ways and had taken to drink. Thirdly, the members of the committee have made a young man self-supporting who became blind at the age of six and had had six years' training in a school for the blind. They hired an aged expert to teach him rush-seating of chairs, had rushes gathered in the neighborhood and cured by the blind workers, and have organized trade for him. In another city a committee has tried, with the co-operation of the home teachers, to raise the standard of the women's work, in sewing and knitting, and has secured admission of the best work to their women's exchange in competition with the work of seeing people. These are, to be sure, experiments and the time has been only a year, but they seem at least to point the way.

Further Illustration.

One more reason for local help is that greater promptness is necessary in bringing to the service of the blind the educational advantages which we have. We find persons who, through the ignorance of their parents, have received no education; children whose education is being postponed; and adults becoming blind who before help reaches them, lose heart. One man, a mechanic, who became blind at thirty-eight, told me that the first who came to his rescue were people offering to start him in the lottery business and, again, in a saloon. We have a large group of blind making a good living at street peddling and as street musicians. When, in our cities, all other such licenses are revoked, the blind man is made an exception. Why? Because every one knows there was nothing else he could take up at the critical time and there is very little yet to offer him. A skilled workman, who became blind after forty, said of the state home teacher: "He came just in time, I think, to save my life; at least he saved my sanity, for he gave me something to do." This man is the one who exercises his mind with the five kinds of type. The blind need more instead of less education than the seeing, and adults becoming blind need immediate encouragement to work. Otherwise they fall into idleness, ill-health and even danger, and the feeling that blindness makes questionable occupations legitimate continues to grow.

What has been done thus far is clearly but preliminary, yet it seems to show there is need of more work to follow. It suggests that to secure a true account of the condition of the blind an investigation should be made to cover a given space thoroughly and within a given time, and that it should be done in co-operation with the blind and with different communities. It is clear, further, that the blind are not easily found; that changes occur rapidly; that there is as great a variety of needs as there are individuals; that the greatest degree of promptness is needed in providing education for children, and work for adults; and that, therefore, there is no limit to the possibilities and extent of field work.

A Feudal Survival—the Blind Pension

James Forbes
Mendicancy Officer, New York Charity Organization Society

Once every year in New York there has been perpetrated a barbarism which, because of its blending of sunshine, squalor, gold and cruelty, might reasonably be supposed possible only to the East.

My reference is to the distribution by the Department of Public Charities in midsummer each year of the public moneys appropriated for the relief of indigent adult blind residents not inmates

of public institutions, a form of outdoor relief commonly known among its beneficiaries as the "blind pension."

No better method of distribution has been devised than to have the beneficiaries herd in mass at the charity department's offices in the several boroughs upon the day of disbursement. Some six hundred "pensioners" resident in Manhattan and the Bronx receive their dole upon the department's pier at the foot of East 26th street. Here from tables heaped with gold the city paymasters redeem vouchers issued by the Department of Public Charities.

The task of paying off the six hundred blind is a formidable one and the scenes accompanying it are little to the credit of our civilization. Before daybreak upon the great day the blind are already in evidence about the pier, and hours before the paymasters arrive the approaches are crowded with blind and their leaders and parasites. The almost uncontrollable excitement natural to the occasion is intensified for the blind by the wretched accommodations, herded as men and women are upon the dangerous driveways constantly traversed by teams, and with the added fear conveyed by the knowledge of evil strangers never missing from the vicinity of the charity dock upon the day of payment. No water, no shade, no toilet accommodations, the mass of unfortunates stand for hours enduring mental and physical agonies according to their susceptibilities.

A considerable minority of the beneficiaries consists of pariahs from the common lodging-houses or from the alleys of the Fourth Ward, wretched creatures who, but for this practically indiscriminate distribution of gold, would be induced to accept proper institutional care. This minority leavens the mass with its obnoxious atmosphere.

Thus the patient, self-respecting blind, men or women, whose sight and wage-earning capacity have been slowly stolen by cataract, the result of close application to industry, are degraded by associations forced upon them by the proximity of obscene, vermin-ridden wretches from the cellars of Cherry Hill and the Bowery "morgues," outcasts to whom blindness has come after half a lifetime of sottishness, vice and filth.

All races, too, and tongues are represented, for the fame of the "blind pension" and the ease with which it may be secured are as impelling to the thrift of the immigrant as to the avarice of the divekeeper. The petty politician here finds a ready means to put young voters under "obligations" by aiding the city rob them of old-world ideas of filial duty. Let us analyze the make up of the crowd on the dock as I saw it one hot summer day.

Note the little group of well-dressed Italians who accompany their relative who, arrested eleven months later while begging, still carried with his hoard of $800 in bills the heavy gold pieces he is receiving to-day.

Here is a low-browed mendicant, a Polish immigrant, long a hideous figure in our streets. Legally, he has forfeited all claim to the "pension" by recent imprisonment, but receives the gold, to boast later of the "pull" which thus secures him "the price of two writs" (of habeas corpus—in case of further arrests).

The ex-nighthawk cabman of evil knowledge is already fighting drunk in anticipation of the coming debauch which will take him away from his begging corner in the doorway of a dive, notorious enough to be called famous, for a week or more.

The ex-tramp, too, who came out sightless but alive from the barn where the comrades of a wood alcohol debauch met a miserable end. A city beggar, now; two "waiters" from the dive he frequents are at his elbow to guard him against falling into strange hands.

A score of viragoes, whose memories of Water street date back to the days of clipper ships and deep-water sailors, are to be seen leading the imbecile, scarcely human creatures whom they hide away in cellars or garrets for the "blind money" and the insurance which alone give them a value.

Lodging-house runners are much in evidence, for a runner loyal to his house easily secures on such occasions the payment of three months' lodgings in advance (and sundry drinks), and the blind

one thus secured with shelter has only food and drink to beg.

From one lodging-house in Third Avenue, notorious because of the "morgue" or "barrel house" on its ground floor, come a half-dozen mendicant blind well guarded, already half stupefied with liquor. It is easy to see the avid face of the keeper as his cash register engulfs all these good gold pieces before night.

Not absent either is the veteran whose vices demand that his country's pension be supplemented by the city of his residence, and five debauches a year take the place of four.

Not lacking either are the smoother frauds who have not invited the stigma of the grosser vices. One such is noticeable at the moment, an elderly woman accompanied by her son. Never since boyhood has this hulking rascal worked, for he is the "poor boy" who needs employment and whom a number of business men have put to work for charity's sake (after seeing to the rent, coal and other immediate necessities of the mother), only to learn that the "work was too hard for Johnny." "Johnny," by the way, is getting difficult to satisfy as he learns new vices, and is apt to beat his mother occasionally to emphasize his need of money.

Meanwhile he tries hard to control his features as he grabs the money to "take care of it for mother"—and the mother, smooth spoken, oh, so plausible, so highly skilled in deception, she has trained her boy in falsehood and craft from his birth and she is paying the price.

Even from out of town they gather for the harvest. In 1902 the writer saw a blind woman who received the grant who came down from Bridgeport purposely and returned the same day. Greed alone was the motive as the woman and her husband were in the hands of well-to-do, if doubtful relatives.

Yet for every fraud and mendicant and doubtful case, there are two to whom the "pension" is a gift from heaven. Rent, coal, food, clothing, all are secured for no inconsiderable period by the grant, but why in the name of common sense must the present senseless criminal method of distribution be continued?

The Massachusetts State Commission's Report

The report of the Massachusetts State Commission on the Adult Blind, submitted to the assembly the latter part of January, becomes one of the notable documents of practical philanthropy in the history of the development of comprehensive public measures to meet the particular needs of particular groups of individuals.

The commission roughly divides the agencies for improving the condition of the blind into three classes—educational, industrial and eleemosynary (homes, etc.). It finds American educational institutions for the blind are boarding schools with terms and vacations—practically, they are for the instruction of children and youth and but little for adults. "Their aims are distinctively educational, their dominant conceptions are academic, their curriculum is mainly literary, and their methods are scholastic."

Continuing, the commission analyzes further what might be called the post-graduate relations of the schools for the blind. It says:

> As a class, American schools for the blind are organized and managed on lines closely similar to those followed in the organization and administration of schools of like grade for seeing pupils. The policy of leaving their graduates to sink or swim after graduation is shared alike by the managers of schools for the seeing and of schools for the blind. So true is this that it is practically impossible, at present, to secure anything like full and trustworthy information from the managers of either class of schools as to the success of their graduates in making their way in the world.
>
> Hitherto, as a rule, the schools have made but feeble and unsystematic efforts to keep in touch with their graduates and old pupils, or to establish bureaus of information and employment. Consequently many of the blind lose heart and hope, and fail through lack of opportunity or unusual business capacity to maintain themselves or to contribute much toward their own support, even when they have learned a handicraft during their pupilage.
>
> Not all adults are everywhere excluded from the benefits offered by the schools to blind children and youth, but their admis-

sion as pupils into such schools is exceptional. Though the custom has become quite general for public day schools to maintain night schools for the instruction of adults, we are unable to instance any school for the blind where similar opportunities are offered to the adult blind. . . . For the aid of this class, employment bureaus, industrial schools and workshops seem best adapted. The aged, infirm and incompetent blind call for quite other treatment. Their needs can best be met, as they are already, by distinctively charitable agencies. We doubt the expediency of establishing at public expense special almshouses or asylums for the segregation of the aged or helpless blind.

Industrial training of a rather stereotyped kind has long been a feature of the curriculum of American schools for the blind, and in certain cases, *e. g.*, at the Perkins Institution and the Maryland School for the Blind, the schools maintain shops in which blind adults from outside find employment. In other schools similar shops have been given up, and manual training has been given a prominent place in the curriculum. The so-called "Saxon system" of aiding blind working men and women, in their homes, to secure raw material at favorable rates and to market their wares, seems not to have been adopted effectively on a large scale in this country.

The more general establishment in this country of bureaus of registery and employment for the benefit of the blind, whether graduates of the schools or not, seems to us one of the most pressing needs at the present juncture. Next in importance, perhaps, is the need of industrial or shop-schools, and industrial homes. The comparative ill-success of most of the industrial homes and schools for the blind now struggling for existence seem to us partly attributable to the lack of the kind of aid afforded the blind under the Saxon system, and by such societies as the Valentine Haüy Association in Paris. . . . If, as seems certain, governors and managers of industrial schools, homes and shops for the blind cannot count on the co-operation of the trustees and directors of the schools for the blind, it would appear that there is peculiar need for public authorities and private philanthropists to give their best endeavors toward making all hopeful industrial agencies for improving the condition of the blind as effective as possible.

The statistics gathered by the Massachusetts Commission, while for but a comparatively small group, are probably the most complete ever prepared. Five hundred and seventy-six records were obtained by the commission's special agent during the year of the investigation, who being a trained investigator has obtained facts never before given with any degree of accuracy. The records of 257 cases of Boston and its immediate vicinity have been gathered by the Massachusetts Association, and finally, 202 cases were obtained from the home teachers. One of the most interesting results of this collection of data from different sources is that only an expert investigator can really obtain information that can be entirely relied upon. The tables show the conditions of the blind at different ages, with regard to their health, special education before and after blindness, the age at which the blindness occurred and the occupation since the loss of sight. Most important of all is the capacity for the adult blind to support themselves. For example, out of 416 blind persons between the ages of 20 and 59, 14 per cent supported themselves wholly by their own exertions; 28 per cent partly, and 58 per cent were making no exertions at all.

An interesting fact is brought out that of 778 blind persons over 20 years of age only 169 were of infirm health, although in 684 cases blindness was caused by disease. The increase from 202 without occupation before blindness, to 551 after it, is noteworthy, while 127 were independent by reason of having private means. Only 78 supported themselves through their own exertions; 145 were wholly supported by other aid than that given by their own families, and 66 received aid from outside. Only 64 were found in almshouses, 574 were living at home and 78 others lived in private families. The commission significantly comments at this point that the greatest need of the group appears to be not so much homes, or health, or friends, as occupation.

In all our efforts heretofore made to discuss the problem of the blind, difficulty has been found in the fact that no reliable figures have been obtainable with regard to the exact age at which blindness occurred. This is of so great importance that this table submitted by the commission is reprinted here in full.

The Recommendation. In presenting its recommendations, the commission says:

The problem of devising wise and effective measures for providing the adult blind with adequate industrial training, to the end that they may engage in healthful and re-

TABLE SHOWING THE AGE AT WHICH BLINDNESS OCCURRED IN A, B AND C GROUPS OF ADULT BLIND, BY AGE GROUPS.

I.—ABSOLUTE NUMBERS.

PRESENT AGE.

Age When Blindness Occurred.	20–59 Years.			60 Years or Over.			Total, 20 Years or Over.		
	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.
0–19 years	410	199	193	71	22	16	481	221	209
20–39 "	283	157	125	106	31	21	389	188	146
40–59 "	260	129	98	343	152	118	602	281	216
20–59 years	543	286	223	449	183	139	992	469	362
60 or over	..	..	..	906	268	207	906	268	207
20 or over	543	286	223	1355	451	346	1898	737	569
0–19 years	410	199	193	71	22	16	481	221	209
Unknown	33	..	..	31	..	..	64	..	..
Total	986	485	416	1457	473	362	2443	958	778

II.—PER CENTS.

PRESENT AGE.

Age When Blindness Occurred.	20–59 Years.			60 Years or Over.			Total, 20 Years or Over.		
	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.	A.	B.	C.
0–19 years	41.58	41.03	46.40	4.87	4.65	4.42	19.69	23.07	26.86
20–39 "	28.70	32.37	30.05	7 28	6.55	5.80	15.92	19.62	18.77
40–59 "	26.37	26.60	23.55	23.54	32.13	32.60	24.68	29.33	27.76
20–59 years	55.07	58.97	53.60	30.82	38.68	38.40	40.60	48.95	46.53
60 or over	..	..	..	62.18	56.67	57.18	37.09	27.97	26.61
20 or over	55.07	58.97	53.60	93 00	95.35	95 58	77.69	76.93	73.14
0–19 years	41.58	41.03	46.40	4.87	4.65	4.42	19.69	23.07	26.86
Unknown	3.35	..	..	2.13	..	..	2.62	..	..
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

The figures in the foregoing table under A are compiled from the preliminary returns of the State Census of 1905; under B from a consolidated card catalogue covering 1035 records, made up (*a*) of 576 records made by our agent, (*b*) the records of 257 cases in Boston and its immediate neighborhood, investigated by the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Adult Blind, and (*c*) the records of 202 cases copied at our expense from the register kept by the Massachusetts Home Teachers of the Blind, and from a card catalogue prepared by the commission's special agent. The facts brought out by the table are important and interesting because they throw new light upon the question of the number of blind who become blind in adult life. Confining our attention to the 778 records analyzed under C since they are somewhat preferable to the others as respect the care expended in making them, it is noteworthy that only 26.86 per cent of the number became blind before reaching the age of 20 years, against 73.14 per cent who became blind at 20 years or upwards, and 26.61 per cent who were over sixty when blindness came upon them. That the proportion of adult blind ranging in age from 20 to 59 years should be 46.40 against 4.42 per cent in the age group 60 or over, is highly significant, as the implication seems to be that the youthful blind are relatively short lived.

munerative forms of industry, is an intricate and difficult one. But it is bound up with the problem of industrial education, which has hitherto received but scant and grudging attention from those who shape and control public education in this state. If the industrial education of seeing youth and young men and women in Massachusetts were upon a satisfactory basis and sufficiently provided for, it would hardly be necessary to provide special schools and workshops for the blind, such as we desire to see established under the control and management of a special board.

We recommend:

1. The establishment of a permanent board for improving the conditions of the blind. We believe that women and blind persons should be eligible for membership on such board.

2. That the register and catalogues which we have prepared shall be placed in charge of said board and that they shall be charged to maintain and perfect the same, to the end that the board may serve as a bureau of investigation, information and advice.

3. That the board shall serve as a bureau of industrial aid, to find new forms of employment for the blind, to aid them in finding work, and to develop home industries among the blind.

4. That the board shall be empowered to establish and manage a system of industrial schools and workshops for the purpose of affording suitable blind persons instruction and work in the lines of industry most adapted to their needs.

The Findings of the New York State Commission

O. H. Burritt

Superintendent New York State School for the Blind, Batavia.

The New York Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind appointed by Governor Odell in May, 1903, found the United States census of 1900 its most immediately available source of information. This census showed that there were in the state in 1900, 6,008 blind persons. Of this number, 3,315, or fifty-five per cent of the whole, were males; 2,693, or forty-five per cent of the whole, were females.

The commission assumed for the purpose of its investigation: That all persons under twenty-one years of age were of "school age;" that all between twenty-one and fifty were of "working age;" that all between fifty and sixty were of "possible working age;" and that all over sixty years of age were of "non-working age." The number of each sex, the total number and the percentage of the whole blind population within these several age limits were as follows:

Age	Male	Female	Total	Per-centage
School age (under 21)	323	261	584	9.72
Working age (21-50)	829	546	1,375	22.88
Possible working age (50-60)	494	338	832	13.84
Non-working age (over 60)	1,664	1,529	3,193	53.14
Unknown	5	19	24	.39
Total	3,315	2,693	6,008	100.00

It thus appears "that of the 6,008 blind persons in New York state only 584, or 9.72 per cent of the total number, are under twenty-one years of age; 3,193, or 53.14 per cent, over sixty years of age, while 1,375, or 22.88 per cent, are between the ages of twenty-one and fifty. This number may reasonably be assumed to be the number of the blind of the state who are now in the prime of life, and these are the persons who may be supposed to be capable of being rendered in whole or in part self-supporting."

But the most profitable line of investigation pursued by the commission and that which furnished the most varied and reliable data was the personal visitation of the blind in their own homes. For the larger part of this work two young blind men were employed, both of whom had been students at the Batavia school. The following is the classification by age of the 632 blind persons interviewed:

Age	Male	Female	Total	Percentage of 632 visited
School age (under 21)	23	24	47	7.5
Working age (21-50)	54	16	70	11.
Possible w'king age (50-60)	25	6	31	5.
Non-working age (over 60)	..	..	484	76.5
FINANCIAL CONDITION.				
Self-supporting	57	4	61	10.
Contributing to support	70	64	134	21.
Total	127	68	195	31.
Number inmates of charitable institutions	28	42	70	11.

Of the almshouse blind, these facts were learned:

	Male.	Female.	Total.	Percentage of blind of entire state.
New York City	67	70	137	2.28
In 49 counties, outside	71	51	122	2.03
Total (8 counties not reporting)	138	121	259	4.31

As a result of their investigations along the several lines above indicated, the commissioners reached conclusions which they briefly enumerated at the close of their report. The more important of these follow:

1. The blind of the state are in general very poor. . . .

2. At least sixty-five per cent of them are too old to acquire and to follow an industrial occupation, while another and unknown proportion of them are physically or mentally unsound.

3. Most of the blind, especially among the women, do not travel far alone, and hence they must reside near their work or it must be carried to them.

4. . . . many of the blind, especially of the women, are for the most part comfortably cared for in the homes of either relatives or friends. It would seem unwise under such conditions to cultivate the "institutional habit" by segregating those thus situated in homes especially provided for the blind.

5. . . . "Workshops" for adult blind men at least who are of working age, are generally far more successful than are "industrial homes."

6. . . . a few of the adult blind, even under existing conditions, become wholly or partly self-supporting.

7. The experience of very many blind men who have endeavored to follow the trades learned at some schools for the blind proves that, while the product of their labor would probably be of sufficient value to afford them a comfortable support, the time consumed in selling this product prevents them in reality from gaining such support.

8. Your commission believe that adults and children should not be trained in the same institution or under the same management. Some form of manual training for boys should take the place of the industrial training now conducted in schools for the young blind.

9. Your commission find that all attempts to combine industry and charity in the same establishment and under the same management have proved in every instance to be at best financial failures, and in its judgment such must continue to be the case since by its combination a premium is put upon idleness by giving the most charity to the least industrious person.

10. It is generally recognized by social economists that, while the giving of pension is the simplest method of aiding those who seem to require financial assistance, it is in a very large number of instances not only an unwise method but is demoralizing in its effect upon the recipients.

11. With all the deductions that have been previously made there are still very many adult blind men and women who are capable of being taught and of following some industrial training for whom suitable provisions should be made.

The commission's recommendations were incorporated in a bill, which the legislature promptly passed but which Governor Odell vetoed, filing with his veto this memorandum:

> I am unable to discern the necessity of this proposed act, because the state is making ample provisions in every respect for the education of the blind; and ample provisions exist in every locality for their proper care. . . .

For the education of 324 pupils the state expended in 1900, $76,766.10. Yet, with the exception of the few who are cared for in the almshouses of the state, not one dollar of the state's money was expended for the benefit of the adult blind, although they constitute over ninety per cent of the blind population of this state. Nor is it my contention that the state should expend any less amount for the education of its blind youth, but rather that it should now take the additional step of providing opportunities to labor for that portion of its adult citizens who are able to work but who are to-day deprived of any opportunity.

Pennsylvania's Inquiry into the Condition and Needs of the Adult Blind

Edward E. Allen

President of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.

For many years there have been in Philadelphia two working homes for the blind, but with the exception of an appropriation of money to aid one of them and of another for furthering the home teaching of the blind, the state of Pennsylvania is doing nothing for its adult blind as a class. With its enormous appropriations for the benefit of its weaker citizens, Pennsylvania is not shirking its duty to its blind adults, but like most other commonwealths it is simply ignorant how best to cope with the problem this class presents. Private initiative, which starts all such movements, is likely before long to start this one, and that it may do so wisely, a careful canvass of the situation is an essential preliminary.

The problem itself is complicated by sentiment. Indeed, the kind of sympathy blindness commonly invites is not helpful but baneful. The true friends of the blind have, as perhaps their greatest difficulty, the education of the community regarding the blind. Applying the case to themselves, people naturally imagine that if they were without sight they would be helpless. And thus having little faith in the capacity of the blind they pity and pauperize them and so render them helpless in fact.

There is no single solution of this problem. The blind are only alike in their common defect and usually in being poor; in other ways they are as different as other folks. There are the children and youth, the able-bodied adults and the old and

feeble,—the last forming the largest contingent. Most of the blind are scattered throughout the communities, where some are contented and happy; others, neglected and forlorn. Their needs are as various as their human situations. But that their case calls for study and alleviation there is no question. A manifest duty is before us—but what to do and how to do it is not yet plain.

As an aid to the understanding of this problem and as a means of keeping in touch with its former pupils, the Pennsylvania School for the Blind started, three years ago, a mission to all the blind of the state. Up to the present time thirty-one counties of the eastern half of Pennsylvania have been covered and 2,805 cases reported upon. We have not done this by correspondence but by personal visits, necessitating much time, labor, expense, and the overcoming of innumerable difficulties. "The message you send is far less effective than the message you carry." Our machinery for the work consists of the last census list of the names, ages and addresses of the blind of the state; and of a "field officer," a young man remarkably fitted for his mission by character and training on the one hand and on the other by total blindness. The combination of these qualifications has made his labors wonderfully successful. His blindness opens the door to every blind person's heart, and being strong, fearless, clever, tactful, resourceful, trained in the difficulties of blindness, well educated, self-made and brimful of irresistible cheer—he is a very paragon for the purpose of carrying information and encouragement to the blind and conviction to their relatives and friends. Moreover, he travels alone, which fact, while it adds tremendously to his difficulties, yet so magnifies the impression he makes that it more than pays.

Before starting out on one of his trips, which may last from a week to a month, he maps out his route, selects a centre from which to radiate daily, fills his trunk with pictures of the school and of the pupils at work and at play, with leaflets and pamphlets emphasizing the need of schooling for the young blind; with alphabets of embossed type for the young and for the old, with a few special appliances like self-threading needles for the women and adapted checker-boards and playing cards for the men. From all this stock, he carries about with him only a flat music-case full. Thus people do not take him for a peddler, though from his neat appearance and mission they do sometimes imagine him an evangelist. Arriving at a town he first finds a boarding place and then begins with his list. He generally hunts up someone—the station agent, a minister, the postmaster, a physician or a teacher—who gives him help as to how and where to reach different cases and sometimes can tell him much about them. In this way he is able to scour his field thoroughly, finding, in fact, many blind folks not on his list. And he visits every one and makes records of all.

I have purposely dwelt in detail upon the man and his manner of working, because in this lies the chief value of the undertaking. For great as is his inspiration to the blind he visits, I conceive that the breaking down of the prejudice of the seeing toward the blind, which we all know to be universal, is his greatest contribution. In his travels by train, street car, carriage and afoot, he comes into more or less close contact with many people, all of whom necessarily learn of his business. He estimates that he thus talks with twenty people for every blind person found, which means that not only have 56,000 people learned first-hand of his mission but through the force of his personality have come to believe in him and through him in the blind whom he represents.

Aside from this aspect of his work, the returns which he makes of every case, which are copied on to individual cards at the school, will furnish data alike for the student of the subject and for the practical worker in the cause of the adult blind everywhere. And from these data there will inevitably come much good because much light.

When after two or three more years of this work the whole state shall have been canvassed we shall have records such as no organization in the country possesses; records which will show what the condition of the adult blind in their homes really is and what are their needs.

Six Representative Undertakings

Industrial Institute for the Adult Blind in Connecticut

Hartford

Charles H. Jones, Superintendent

Connecticut occupies the proud position of being the pioneer state to provide by legislative enactment for the instruction of her adult blind.

Like many other good things which bless and brighten this world of ours, this work was "born of a woman." In the autumn of 1888 Mrs. E. W. Foster, of Hartford, while passing through a dark passage of a tenement-house stumbled over a little blind Italian boy. She became interested in him and would frequently take him to her home for several days at a time. This led her to take an interest in other blind people of all ages and conditions, and in a short time she had discovered more than fifty of them in her own city. Almost before she herself was aware of the fact, her heart, time and purse were enlisted in the work. Through her efforts F. E. Cleaveland, a lawyer in Hartford, who had been blind from early manhood, became interested with her, and from this small beginning has grown the work in Connecticut.

The general assembly in 1893 passed an act creating a State Board of Education for the Blind, to consist of the governor, chief justice and two other persons to be appointed by the governor. This board was charged with the educational interests of the blind of the state, both children and adults. The Connecticut Institute for the Blind is directly under its care to visit, inspect and report. A per capita appropriation of three hundred dollars per annum was made for such blind persons as the state board should consider eligible as state pupils, and in cases where parents or guardians were unable to provide suitable clothing or to pay transportation expenses, an additional appropriation of thirty dollars per capita was made. Thus the project was launched and the problem presented.

These early workers simply knew in a general way what they wished to accomplish. With very limited financial resources and with no practical experience, the task undertaken was great and perplexing. The first duty confronting them was to ascertain as nearly as possible the number and condition of the blind people in the state. This number was discovered to be much larger than was previously supposed, and the condition of many was found to be extremely wretched. For the twenty-seven years prior to the establishment of the state board, only fifty-seven blind people, all children, had received instruction as state pupils; for the nine years following its establishment 225 were enrolled, of which 105 were pupils at the industrial institution.

I cannot refrain from expressing at this point my admiration for the work of the members of the state board during these formative years. Not only have they been wonderfully successful in searching out cases of blindness, but indefatigable in their efforts to *prevent* blindness by disseminating information therefor. In looking forward to the establishment of a similar work in any other state, I recommend the creation of a state board of education for the blind or a commission exercising similar powers, as the first essential to success.

So much for our origin. Our aim is to make all who come to us self-supporting, or as nearly so as possible. In order to do this we not only instruct them in the different handicrafts they may elect to follow, but endeavor to instruct also in business principles, familiarizing them with the cost of the raw material and the best markets for their finished products; impressing upon them above all else the importance of strict honesty in the manufacture and representation of all their commodities.

We discourage everything that has the least appearance of an attempt to gain any advantage of any kind through the sympathy of others. We endeavor to treat all the blind as nearly as possible as we do seeing people, never doing anything for them that we believe them capable

Mattress Department—Connecticut Institute for the Blind.

Weaving—Massachusetts Experiment Station

of doing for themselves. Many common matters incident to daily life, that at first blind people think they can never do, become very easy and simple to them after a little practice.

We manufacture brooms of all kinds from a light whisk to the heaviest stable; re-cane chairs; manufacture and renovate mattresses, tune and repair pianos and organs, run a printing-office where we print anything from a visiting-card to a newspaper; carry on the making of mattress ticks, sewing these by hand and on a machine; knitting, crocheting, basket-making, both splint and rattan; raffia, bead and other forms of fancy work; besides simple mending of the clothes, and ordinary housework. In addition, some of our girls have taken full courses in massage and shampooing and are just commencing to practice these. Those that have never learned to read and write braille are given the opportunity to do so if they wish. Most of our people, both men and women, learn to use an ordinary typewriter for correspondence with seeing friends.

What results have been accomplished? It is difficult to give absolute results. Much of the good will be more apparent years hence than now. Out of the whole number of pupils who have been at the institution during the eleven years of its existence, we have forty-five that are actually self-supporting and several of these are not only supporting themselves, but they are also supporting families. Five have died, two of whom were self-supporting and two more of whom could have been had they lived. A few who are not self-supporting are capable of being, but opium or intoxicants prevent; a few are also capable of making a comfortable living for themselves, but having been robbed of their manhood or womanhood by years of dependence upon others before coming to us, find it easier to receive either public or private charity than to work for what they need. In other words, they are lazy and as adverse to work as some seeing people afflicted with the same disease. Of the others who are still living, many, while not strictly self-supporting, have been so much benefited by the instruction received at the institution, that they are able appreciably to lighten the burdens of those with whom they make their homes. In fact, we believe the proportion of those among the blind who may be reckoned as failures so far as self-support is concerned is no greater, to say the least, than among seeing people.

One objection which is sometimes made to "Industrial Education for the Blind" is that it is impossible for the blind to compete successfully with seeing people; consequently the products of their labor will remain unsold or have to be disposed of at a loss. This objection is simply theoretical and will be made only by people ignorant of facts. At our own institution, while we may not be able to score quite so large a profit as may be shown by shops equipped with labor-saving machinery and seeing help, we nevertheless sell our goods at a fair profit above the cost of manufacture. In the broom department, for instance, during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1904, we manufactured about twenty thousand brooms, all of which found ready sale. The present year, I think, will show an increased number manufactured, and yet, much to our regret, several times we have been obliged to refuse orders which we were utterly unable to fill. The brooms which we place upon the market with our labels affixed will not suffer by competition or comparison with any brooms made by seeing men.

But this problem of education for the adult blind is not solved simply by working from the dollar standpoint.

God forbid that any state should deny the outstretched arms and the uplifted but sightless eyes of the hundreds of her men and women who, unaided, must rust and wither in almshouses or suffer under a constant sense of helpless dependence upon those they love. Rather let the great mother-heart of each state respond to this appeal for opportunity to stand again among the breadwinners and wage-earners, by providing and offering such facilities as will make it possible for these hopes and aspirations to be fully realized. While we may not be able literally to give sight to the blind. we can, by opening before them new avenues of usefulness, assist in developing their remaining powers until the limitation of blindness is reduced to the minimum.

The Industrial Home for the Blind

Brooklyn

Eben P. Morford, Superintendent

Institutional environment is a factor in the problem of the blind, in their endeavor to support themselves, as they are found in an industrial home.

First, there is a class who are capable of supporting themselves without the aid of any organized effort in their behalf. Second, there is a class who are capable of self-support if started with the aid of organized effort. Third, there is a class, who although they strive earnestly, are not capable of supporting themselves without organized effort. Fourth, there is a class, who, with or without organized effort, will not try to support themselves, but rather expect their support to come in some way from the public.

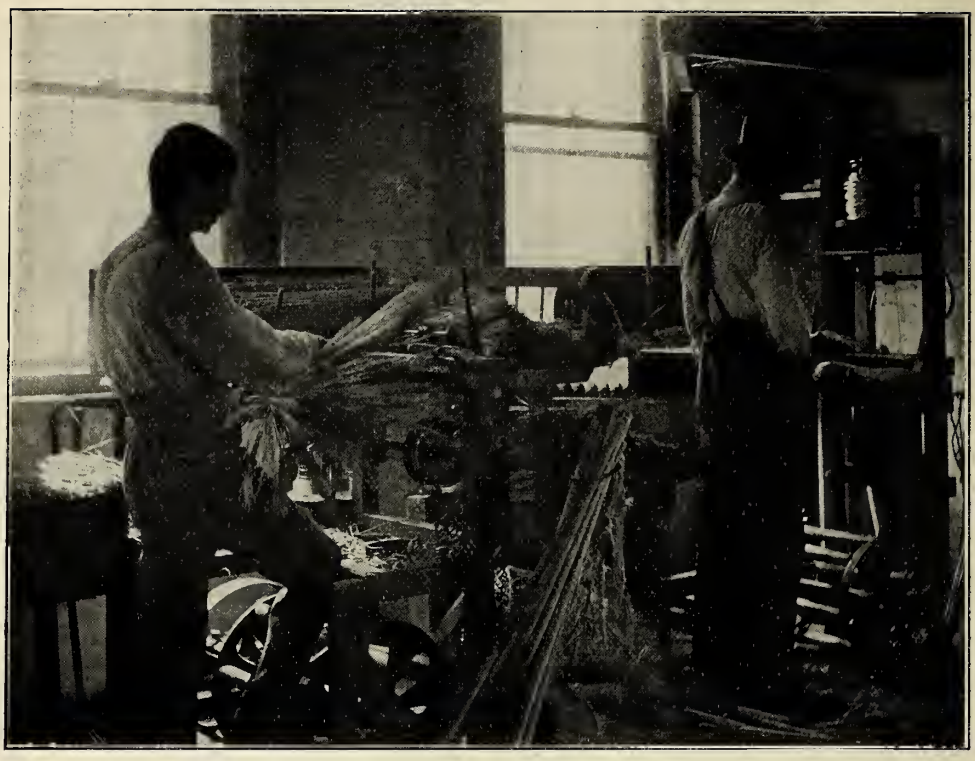
With the first class the industrial home has little or no concern, with the second and third class it has every concern, and with the fourth, it would be better if they were provided for in some disciplinary training institution. In my opinion the less institutional environment the better, as the following amusing incident demonstrates. While visiting the blind wards on Blackwell's Island recently I was asked by Chaplain Beard to say a few words to the men, which I did, telling them that like themselves I was blind, and explaining the work in Brooklyn. We were preparing to leave the ward, when the following conservation was heard:

> I tell you it's all right for them to come over here and tell us about that place over there; but it's only a hobby with them. They don't care for the blind. Why don't they leave the blind alone? The blind don't want to be bothered with them. The blind can't compete with the seeing, and there's no use trying. If that fellow had not been clever enough to put himself at the head of that place over there he would be on the street peddling shoestrings just the same as other blind men.

The Industrial Home for the Blind of Brooklyn has taken hold of this problem in a practical way by establishing under its roof workshops for blind mechanics, with a home or boarding-house attached. The home is not self-supporting and is dependent upon the contributions of persons who are interested in its welfare. It does not receive city or state aid. The inmates are expected to pay a certain amount ($2.75 per week) for their maintenance, and this coupled with the fact that they are wage-earners, entitles them to the full privileges of citizenship in the community; that is they have the right to vote, hold public office, etc. As wage-earners they have the respect and esteem of all the community, and are not labled paupers. No restriction is placed on their out-going or in-coming, any more than is required in any home or family circle. They attend their respective churches and are accepted as the social equals of any of its members, and are invited to its social gatherings just the same as all its members.

Any blind person of good moral character who is able and willing to work is eligible for admission, and it is needless to add, that creed or nationality does not affect his admission. The home is neither an asylum nor a "blind hotel," that is, it is not a refuge or retreat. Idlers are not wanted. It is as its name implies, a manufacturing enterprise and has for its object the helping of the blind to help themselves. All of the employés are striving to attain the desired result, which is self-support, and although some of them do not attain this result from a monetary standpoint, they work hard and faithfully to do so, and practically earn what they receive. About thirty-five per cent of the workmen are married and live in their own little homes with their families. They are independent members of the several communities in which they live. They pay for all they receive and are respected by all who know them. The fact of their being blind and workers in this institution is not detrimental in any way to their standing in the community. They are received and treated the same as the employés of any factory would be.

The factory is conducted on strict business principles; the hours of labor are the same as in any factory; wages are on the same basis, the same discipline is exacted of the men in order to keep the standard of the work high. The four industries that are carried on are broom



Sewing Brooms, Brooklyn Institute.

making, mattress making, cane-seating and net and hammock weaving. The second and third, namely, mattress making and cane-seating, are well adapted to the use of the blind for the reason that they require little or no sight to carry them on, and what sight is used, merely facilitates manipulating the material. The manufacture of corn brooms is particularly well adapted to the use of the blind for many reasons; for instance, it requires four distinct operators to make a broom, thus furnishing work for four different sets of men, beside the necessary helpers in the finishing room to help scrape, trim, bunch and label the finished product. Then, too, there is an opportunity in the broom industry to furnish employment for all classes of labor from the unskilled to the skilled mechanic. Any blind man can operate a sizing machine, and from that he goes to the sewing machine at which about ninety per cent of the blind can excel. Next he goes to the winding or tieing machine, at which about fifty per cent of the blind may become expert. The method of taking on a new workman at the home is the same as in any factory; he is first placed at the simplest and easiest branch of the trade until he has become thoroughly accustomed to using his hands, instead of his eyes, while working, and has familiarized himself in every detail of that branch; then he is ready for advancement. His promotion depends on vacancies, increase of business, and his ability to perform the labor assigned to him. The following figures will demonstrate what the workmen at the Brooklyn Home for the Blind are capable of earning. In the cane shop the average for a good workmen is $30 per month, from which he pays $12 for his board; medium workmen will average $18 per month, from which they pay the above amount for board, and poor workmen will average $9 per month, from which they pay about $7.50 for board. In the broom shop, an average winder can earn $40 per month, a broom sewer $50, and a corn sizer $20.

Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind

Milwaukee

Oscar Küstermann, Superintendent

Whenever you see a basket or a piece of willow ware with the coat of arms of Wisconsin and inscribed with these words, "Independence Through Industry," you will know that it comes from the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind. For that motto is the guiding star of the blind workmen who, by the state legislature of 1903, were provided with a chance to become self-supporting.

The first question was what branch of industry, what trade would bring the results. With us broom making was not considered because the competition in this line was too great and margins cut down to a minimum. Mattress making was thought of, but when it was ascertained that machinery is now largely employed in this line and prices materially reduced in consequence, we came to the conclusion that this idea would also have to be abandoned. Chair caning was not considered a trade.

It soon became apparent that, in order to insure success, only articles made by hand and in the manufacture of which no machinery could take the place of handwork could be considered in our new venture. Our first undertaking, the making of cloth shoes in which the blind of Switzerland are partly employed, had to be discontinued, because it was not profitable enough and the demand for that style of shoe too small.

Looking over the reports of foreign institutions for the blind, we found that of all the lines in which the blind were employed, none promised better results than the manufacture of willow ware. An efficient instructor in this line was employed, another one being added as the number of our workmen increased. The few necessary but inexpensive tools and a number of work benches, as well as a vat for the purpose of soaking the willow and a number of forms to guide our workmen in giving the basket the proper shape and making them of uniform size were procured. Later on, to complete our outfit, we added a boring machine, run by electric motor, for boring the bottoms of clothes baskets and hampers.

When our shop was opened in December, 1903, we started with four apprentices and since then have had thirty-nine blind men on our pay-roll. A few of them left soon after entering, because idleness or the following of some other occupation was given the preference. The great majority of our workmen remained, are happy and contented and glad of the chance to

Sample Room—Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind.

Wisconsin Willow Workers.

earn their own living and to enjoy the blessings of work.

On entering the workshop the first work taught our men is the making of doll buggies. This enables them to learn the setting up of willows, the fitching of reed and the different closings of the rims, all work which is the foundation of basket making. The first day of work on the buggies varies according to the skill of the men, some succeeding in making four to five buggies a day, while others less apt make from one to two. The amount allowed for each buggy is two cents net. In this way the first week's earnings vary from 30 to 60 cents. In the course of one or two months the men are able to make from ten to twenty buggies a day, their earnings being then from $1.20 to $2.40 a week.

After becoming experienced in the making of doll buggies our men are put to work on plain baskets, an employment which is more remunerative. In course of time their work includes clothes baskets, hampers, office baskets and all kinds of specialties.

All of our workmen are taught from the beginning that all work must be well made and every article bearing the stamp of the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind must help to build up our reputation for most excellent workmanship. By constantly keeping up the standard of quality of every article bearing our stamp, we have succeeded in building up a good reputation. When our new catalog, the most complete catalog ever published by any willow manufacturer in this country, reaches the trade we expect a marked increase in our orders.

A statutory provision recently enacted authorizes the State Board of Control to furnish indigent blind artisans, who are not residents of the city of Milwaukee, board and lodging for a reasonable time, and also provide means of transportation from any point within the state to Milwaukee, so as to enable them to learn a trade and become self-supporting, such allowance not to exceed in any one case the sum of $75. In consequence of this we expect a large increase in the force of our workmen.

The average weekly earnings of all our men for the first six months was $2.32; for the next six months, $3.73; and for the last six months, $4.20. The weekly average of six of our best workers is $6.12 and the highest amount earned in one week by any one in our shop was $10.30.

The earnings of the men consist of the difference between the cost of material and the selling price of the finished product. The state of Wisconsin simply furnishes the necessary manufacturing room, salesroom, warehouse, fuel, tools, and pays the wages of the superintendent and instructors.

The entire amount expended on our workshop by the state from December 3, 1903, to July 1, 1905, a term of one year and seven months, was $8,053.07. This includes the amount of $3,641.24 advanced for material, tools, machinery, furniture and fixtures. The actual expense for rent, fuel, instruction and management was $4,411.83 for nineteen months, or $232.25 per month, certainly a good investment through which twenty blind persons have already been enabled and more in the future will be enabled to earn their own living.

While the adaptability, adroitness and diligence of each workingman is the main factor, the cost of material figures largely in the earnings of our artisans. The prices of the ready-product remain the same, while the cost of willow at times varies materially, lowering or increasing the earnings of our workmen. Unfortunately our country does not grow enough willow to supply a few dozen shops of the size of ours, each using between 40,000 and 50,000 pounds per year. We are therefore obliged to look for our main supply of material to the foreign countries, especially Germany and France.

To meet this situation the Wisconsin board of control has caused willow farms to be started at a number of our state institutions and it will not be long before we will be supplied from there. The only charge made for this willow to the blind artisans will be for cutting and peeling it, perhaps two or three cents per pound, including freight. The reduced price of material will raise the average weekly earnings of our workmen to about $5.40, while our most expert men would call $9 and $11 their own at the end of every week.

From December 3, 1903, to July 1, 1905, our blind artisans manufactured 7,367 doll buggies, 5,923 baskets, hampers and other willow and rattan specialties, representing a value of about $5,750.

A number of states have established homes in connection with workshops, our short experience has already shown that our system, a workshop only, is preferable in many ways. It relieves the blind from the disagreeable consciousness of dependence and enables them to feel that they are coming together, not to eat soup at a common table, but to do their day's work and earn their own living. After their day's work they return to their homes or boarding places, thus keeping touch with the outside world.

While up to the present time only men have been employed, it is our intention to find out some occupation for the blind women of our state, the last legislature having appropriated the necessary funds for this purpose.

The Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind

Saginaw

J. Perrine Hamilton, Superintendent

When the state of Michigan first began to adopt measures to provide for the education of its blind people, it was foreseen that, as all of them could not follow professional pursuits, it would be necessary to make provision for industrial as well as for intellectual training; and therefore, in the school for the blind first established in connection with the school for mutes at Flint, and later removed to Lansing, industrial trades were introduced. However, it was early discovered that many persons who had lost their sight after becoming adults were very anxious to be taught some industrial occupation, and also that among those who had been thus trained at the school for the blind, many wished the school to continue to employ them, claiming that they were unable either to start in business for themselves or to secure employment in shops with sighted help. The Lansing school tried at first to meet this demand, but these endeavors, which at best only could benefit a few of the many who needed such aid, so imperiled the usefulness of the school as a moral and intellectual educational institution for the youthful blind and also resulted in such financial loss, that these efforts to assist the older blind were entirely discontinued.

After years of agitation, more or less intermittent, the Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind was finally established by act 169 of the laws of Michigan, 1903. By the provisions of this act Michigan appropriated $75,000 for buildings and equipment, $10,000 for the first year's current expenses and $25,000 for the second, and took her place as one of the first states of the Union to make provision for the adult blind. As a pure matter of dollars and cents, the blind who need help, like any other class needing help, could doubtless be taken care of more cheaply in poorhouses or in other places where no attention need be given to teaching trades. But if we take into consideration the renewed hope, the regained usefulness and the brightened lives made possible by such institutions, they are a necessity. Nevertheless, I have met politicians who fondly believe themselves men, who argue that the institution is an expensive experiment and that the few cents per capita which it costs the people of the state is a tax they cannot stand; such politicians have souls so small that they would feel lost lodging in the hollow shell of a mustard seed, and so lodged could well hang out the sign—"room to rent and lots of it."

Our institution is a combination of the industrial home and the workshop. Apprentices are allowed not more than three years in which to acquire the different trades taught and during this time board, lodging and instruction are free. After a trade has been learned the apprentice becomes a wageworker if he cares to remain. He is then put on the payroll and is paid by the piece. He then begins paying his board and may lodge in or out of the institution as he may prefer. As the

apprenticeship idea is combined with the workshop and home, it will be readily seen that this institution never can become self-supporting, or even nearly so, as board, lodging and instruction for all learners must remain free and these apprentices always form a large per cent of the total number enrolled.

After a few of the many delays attendant on securing a site and erecting state buildings, our institution was opened December 22, 1904, and I believe our work can best be explained by citing a few individual cases illustrating all phases of the different things attempted up to the present time.

Emil Weitzmann was formerly employed as foreman in one of the large Detroit brass and copper mills and four years ago lost his sight from an accident in the shop. For three years he was at home very nearly helpless, scarcely able to dress and feed himself. Hearing of this institution soon after it was opened, friends wrote asking to have him admitted. He came to us February 6 and stayed until May 27. During this time he learned to use a typewriter, to read and write the Braille or point system, and made a good start at learning the broom trade. Being a man of business instincts and too old ever to learn to work rapidly at the broom trade, I advised him to try selling brooms. He went to Detroit and, hiring a boy to go around with him, made a canvass of the grocery stores, taking orders of from one to twenty dozen brooms, and since leaving us he has earned from five to fifteen dollars per week. He is now a self-respecting, producing citizen, earning enough to comfortably care for himself. From one of his letters I quote the following extract none the less effective for its German form of expression: "Mr. Hamilton I can never you enough thank for what the institution has done for me. I owe it everything. I am again a man and of some use in the world. I do not more make my people unhappy as I am now content."

Last spring, after some fruitless attempts at correspondence, James Smith was brought from the Wayne County Poorhouse. Mr. Smith is doubly afflicted, being both deaf and blind. Since coming, he has learned to sew brooms, cane chairs, use the typewriter well and is one of the happiest, most contented men here. We talk to him by using the deaf and dumb alphabet. He simply puts his hand on that of the talker and in this way conversation can be carried on quite rapidly and explanations made are easily understood. Recently we admitted another deaf and blind man from Port Huron and Mr. Smith is taking him in charge to teach him the way about the buildings. Both seem happy to have met the other and they will be of mutual benefit. . . . For another of our boys, who learned piano tuning, but had not the qualifications requisite for working up an outside trade, I secured a good position in a New York piano factory. B. H. Janssen, who owns the factory, writes that he is doing well.

The problem of finding work for the girls is not so easy but we are doing what we can to find profitable occupations for them. Several are employed in the institution. Our visitor's attendant is a blind girl and she shows company around so well that many refuse to believe that she is entirely blind. Our seamstress is a blind girl and who does all the mending and making of table cloths, napkins, pillow cases and sheets, using a sewing machine as well as any of her sighted sisters. Since securing a blind girl to do all the dish-washing, our dishes have been cleaner than ever before.

I might multiply examples. Though our institution has been opened scarcely a year we have had seventy-five inmates, several of whom have left us and are now taking care of themselves.[1] A large percentage of those yet here are on the pay-roll, paying their board and clothing themselves and a very few, tired of working, have gone home, but will probably be back again.

For the present we are making the broom trade the principal occupation. There is an almost unlimited market for brooms, and with our institution established as it is, it is necessary to give steady employment to those wishing it. After going on the pay-roll, our men pay two and one-half dollars per week for board, room and washing, which we estimate is about actual cost. They are paid almost entirely by the piece and up to date the poorest workman has cleared fifty cents above his board at the end of the month, and the best something over twenty dollars. We get cost out of our brooms and for the better grades made by our more skilled workmen, get prices which net us from five to twenty cents per dozen profit.

One of the greatest difficulties in our

[1] Not the least important department of our institution is the circulating library in which we already have over a thousand volumes. Books are sent free to blind people anywhere in the state and are returned to us to be sent out again.

work is finding those who need the benefits of such an establishment as the Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind. The class of blind people needing help most are those who are not reached by the few notices which the papers have given of our work. The federal and state census reports are much less help than might be expected. In many cases ages are reported so far wrong that by taking the census report as a guide some would be disqualified. In other cases addresses are given from which letters are regularly returned with the marking, "No such office known." From some of our largest centers of population no report of blind persons is made at all. Thus it will be easily understood that the hearty co-operation of county agents, superintendents of the poor, postmasters, township officials and in large cities, police departments, is very necessary; in fact, is indispensable for a few years, until it becomes known that such an institution as this is in existence.

In conclusion, I will say that the problem of how best to care for and help the adult blind has not been solved. The work is new and necessarily in more or less of an experimental stage. There are many pursuits which blind people can follow, but very few which can be followed with enough rapidity to make them practical as life work. To illustrate: blind girls are perfectly capable of doing the best kind of work with ordinary knitting machines such as are used in all knitting factories, but they work so slowly that they cannot make wages enough to keep themselves. And when it is remembered that among those who can see, nearly every artisan of any skill or proficiency learns a trade before he is twenty-one years of age, the difficulties attendant on taking people who have become blind late in life and teaching them to become skilled workmen and at the same time rapid ones, can be slightly appreciated. Among our men we have farm-hands, wood choppers, machinists, miners, painters, finishers, sawyers, railroad firemen, expert bookkeepers, graduate druggists, some from the army and navy and many who, from having been blind from childhood, have no trades at all. The task before us is no easy one—of helping these people to adapt themselves in many cases to new conditions, to form new life habits, to encourage and cheer the more despondent ones, to make those with families believe that they can, by hard work, again help take care of those dependent upon them. Michigan, however, has been especially fortunate in the personnel of the board of trustees in charge of this new work. Though working entirely without pay, the three members of this board have given unsparingly of their time and best effort to make the institution the success it should be.

Indiana Industrial Home for Blind Men

Indianapolis,
C. S. McGiffin, Superintendent

The Indiana Industrial Home for Blind Men began work on March 12, 1900, with four men. We now have sixteen on our pay-roll.

This institution is not a home, as its incorporated name indicates, but merely a workshop where blind men are employed at the making of brooms. We pay our men by the dozen for their work, at perhaps a little higher rate than is paid in other factories where men with sight are employed. Some of our men earn four dollars per week while others earn as much as seven dollars and sometimes eight dollars. At the present time about one-half of our employés are married men. They live in rented cottages near by our factory, and most of the single secure board with them. This institution is wholly a private enterprise governed by a board of managers constituting nine well-known citizens of Indianapolis. So far we have received aid neither from the state, county or city. All the funds with which our factory is operated have been subscribed by our board of managers and other charitably-inclined citizens. During the past six years we have received in subscriptions about $3,500.

We have erected and paid for a two-story, frame building on grounds which were donated. Since our beginning we

have paid in wages nearly $15,000. We have also tried to make this institution self-supporting, but find each year some little deficit. For the year ending July 1, 1903, this deficit was only $65, and for the year ending July 1, 1905, it was about $600. This variation is caused largely by the condition of the broom-corn market and our inability to purchase stock at the right time. Our trade for the past two months is better than it ever has been before. We have orders ahead for our output at money-making prices. We turn out a good line of work and never have had much stock on hand.

The majority of our workmen are graduates of some of the state schools for blind men and have learned the trade before coming to us. We are receiving many applications from men who have lost their sight too late in life to be admitted into the state school.

Since our beginning we have furnished employment to twenty-eight men, three of whom have been taken from us by death, five are now earning their own living outside and are doing well and four have left us from various other causes. It is the intention of this institution to furnish permanent employment to all those who need it, but on account of our limited means, when we find a man who thinks he is capable of earning his own living at his home or elsewhere, we encourage him to work outside, thus making room for another man who perhaps has not the ability to operate his own little factory. It is our plan to operate out workshop, as far as we can, as though our men could see. We wish to place them as nearly as possible on a footing equal with workmen in other factories.

The Experiment Station for the Trade Training of the Blind

Boston

Charles F. F. Campbell, Superintendent

Since 1893, when the work for the blind was started in Connecticut, which definitely provided for the instruction of the adult blind, interest in Massachusetts in those over nineteen years of age, who are too old to be admitted to the School for the Blind, has steadily increased. The first concrete result of this interest was shown in the legislative support of home teaching, which was started under the care of the State Board of Education in 1900. In 1903 the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind was formed and at the same time a Commission to Investigate the Condition and Needs of the Blind was appointed by the governor. The report of this commission is just out and deserves careful study. During the winter of 1903, the agent of the association was employed to lecture before clubs and churches to further stimulate general interest. It is an unfortunate fact that, although the blind sadly need opportunity to work, the seeing need quite as much a clearer comprehension of the fact that a blind person, when given the opportunity may become partially, if not entirely, self-supporting.

During the summer of 1904 plans were laid for a practical experiment and on November 15 of that year the Experiment Station for the Trade Training of the Blind was officially opened. A careful study of the reports of the various institutions in the United States shows that sewing, knitting, chair caning, broom, basket

and mattress making are practically the only industrial pursuits open to blind men and women. (Tuning is not here included among the trades.) For a long time the leading workers for the blind, both here and abroad, have earnestly wished that a thorough investigation should be made to ascertain whether this limited number of occupations could not be enlarged. The Massachusetts Association, not being tied by old traditions, felt that it would be doing a service, not only to the blind in its own commonwealth, but to the blind of the entire world, if, instead of establishing more mattress, broom and basket shops, which are perfectly feasible when properly managed, it should seek for and test other lines of work.

The first fundamental principle on which the work is conducted is this: If a man, before losing his sight, has worked in some trade, every effort is made to have him continue in the same kind of work, if not the same branch, at least in a similar line; if that is impossible, something in the same factory which, although entirely different, will keep him among friends and fellow workmen. For example, a man who had been a tailor the larger part of his life—familiar with the use of thread and needle—suddenly loses his sight. Unable to continue directly his old work, he begins sewing on ladies' slippers. While his second occupation is far from desirable it is certainly better than idleness. Another man had spent the best years of his life in making wire goods. When he loses his sight he is encouraged to continue the same line of work in his home. No training is necessary. With the aid of a sixteen-year-old son he converts his cellar into a workshop. All that he needs is a small amount of capital with which to buy the wire at wholesale rates and practical assistance in marketing his goods. The accompanying picture shows this man making a plant stand, which is so good that no seeing person can tell the difference between those he makes to-day and those he made five years ago when he had the full use of his eyes. This man is not entirely self-supporting with his wire work, but combined with chair-caning, which he was taught by a home teacher, he is helping pay off the mortgage on the home. In still another instance a man who lost his sight in a factory was unable to do anything in the whole establishment related to his previous work. He had, however, sufficient sight left to run one of the freight elevators. In these three instances—and similar possibilities could be found everywhere—each man, with a very little assistance or expense, has gone on doing his best to be a useful and respected citizen.

Weaving.

Our second effort is to discover, if possible, whether there is anything more remunerative for blind women than sewing and knitting. All familiar with the problem recognize that it is far more difficult to find work for the blind women than for the men. Our hope has been to find something that the women can do successfully in their own homes, either with or without a certain amount of seeing supervision. The cry for handmade goods which is expressing itself all over the country through the modern arts and crafts movement is a veritable Godsend to the blind. The public, and fortunately the part which is best able to support such work, is beginning to demand artistic handmade goods. If there is one thing in which the blind can fairly compete with the seeing it is that in which delicacy of touch is indispensable. Our maxim in this field, if we have one, is to keep up-to-date and try everything that offers possibilities of success. There is a limited sale for such hand-woven articles as are shown in the frontispiece. To the best of my knowledge, no extended experiment in this kind of work has ever before been made. Unfortunately, hand looms have not been developed since their use was given up for power looms generations ago, with the result that our experiment is, of necessity, partly one of mechanical improvement. At the present time we are using a miniature of the old loom which might have been found in any country house in our grandmother's time. The heavy, old-fashioned loom is impossible for a blind girl to use, in fact, for any woman not of robust build. We are spending considerable time and money in an effort to improve the mechanism of our looms. Each loom has four pedals, by the use of which the threads are lifted at the will of the weaver, in groups which are as

Chair Caning, Massachusetts Experiment Station.

Mop Making, Massachusetts Experiment Station.

definite to the touch as are the black notes of a piano. The patterns are designed by a seeing expert, and then dictated to the blind weaver, who reproduces them either by throwing shuttles with different colors between the separated groups of warp threads or by tying the colored threads, each color of course being put in a separate place, around the groups of threads which have been raised by depressing the pedals. After making a particular pattern a few times the blind weaver, having committed it to memory, is actually quicker in performing the work than the seeing assistant, who then only needs to occasionally look at the work to mend broken threads.

The Organization of the Industry.

During the past year, from Jan. 1, 1905, to Jan. 1, 1906, we have employed eight weavers, seven young women and one man who gives his whole time to the rugs. Four of the weavers are totally blind and four have a little vision, so slight, however, that they have to use the methods of the blind. It takes from three to six months for a weaver to become proficient. We pay the workers just as soon as their work is salable, although they are considered apprentices until sufficiently expert to receive the maximum wage. This varies from 7 cents to 18 cents per hour, according to the skill and rapidity of the worker. As we have no guide in the matter of payment, this part of our work is emphatically experimental. Our object is to enable the workers to earn a living wage and also, if possible, to make the department support itself. At first we tried paying our weavers from 50 cents to $2 a week as soon as their work was salable, and, in addition, one-half of the selling price after deducting the cost of material. Such a plan, however, meant that the workers had to wait for their money until the goods were sold, and did not allow a fair proportion for running expenses. Our orders are now more constant and, beginning January 1, 1906, we pay each weaver a regular weekly amount varying from $3 to $6. The workrooms are open eight hours a day; girls who have not been accustomed to regular work find these hours too arduous. We expect at least 36 hours a week. One weaver works 45 hours per week, four work 42, another, one of the most competent, 36, and one on account of poor health only 30.

A careful record is kept of every article made, which shows the time used in making, the cost of material and finishing,[1] and the selling price. We sell the goods at market rates and by carefully studying the above-mentioned records we are able to adjust the wages with fairness to the workers. For the first four months of the past year (of eleven months, the station was closed during August) the sales amounted to $100.85; for the last four months, $929.44. The total sales for the whole year in the weaving department were $1,483.17. The wages paid to the workers during the same period were $845.47. It must be remembered, however, that during the first three months of the year we had but two regular weavers, and the remaining six workers have come in at different times since April. These additional workers have had from three to four month's instruction, the last two having just completed their apprenticeship.

The first part of our experiment is complete, viz.: We are convinced that blind weavers can do the work. We have yet to ascertain whether such work is profitable, and the direct object of this coming year's experiment is to ascertain exactly the cost of maintaining such a weaving shop. It may be possible to let some of the best workers have a loom in their own homes and conduct the work by periodical visits of the assistant. Even if this does not prove feasible, it seems at the present time as if small groups of blind weavers under supervision can produce work of such value that handicraft shops might profitably be established in several centres. The superintendent and his wife, who have lived in the work and done everything from winding a bobbin to mending the loom, fully believe that in time it may be possible for such a group of workers to be practically self-supporting. At any rate, the cost should be very small. Our next experiment in handicrafts is to be with pottery and woodwork.

[1] For example, purchasers sometimes buy the curtains and table covers, etc., just as they are taken from the looms. Often they wish them hemstitched, and for this we employ seeing help. Knotting of the scarfs and rugs is done by the blind.

Work in Factories for the Seeing.

The next effort, and by far the most unique, is that of placing able-bodied blind persons in factories side by side with seeing employés. I have now been through at least twenty-five factories and in most of them have seen processes which are very simple; for example, wrapping pill boxes, putting ferrules on small tools, tinning, spoking and threading the wheels of baby and doll carriages, parts of work in constructing electrical goods. Many processes, simple in themselves, cannot be considered, because they also involve inspection. The wrapping of chocolate or soap is easy for an intelligent blind girl, so far as the mere wrapping is concerned, but every cake, even of the cheapest grade of goods, must be inspected to be sure that a marred cake is not put on the market. Nevertheless, there are processes which require no inspection, and it is for such as these that all those interested in the cause should earnestly seek. One of the most encouraging things in this line of investigation is the attitude of the employers. Often have I been told, "I am absolutely certain that there is nothing in my factory which a person without sight can do, but you are welcome to go freely about and convince yourself." In almost every such instance I have found hopeful possibilities. Another phase of the problem is well expressed by an employer who said, "Mr. Campbell, I am not conducting a Sunday-school, but I assure you, if, after trying one of your blind men, we find that he can do more than the minimum amount of work required, he will be a welcome employé." The proof of this man's fairness is better shown by the fact that for the last seventeen months he has employed a totally blind young man in his factory, his average weekly wage during the first year being $4.76. Two months ago we placed another totally blind man in the same factory and his wages bid fair to be better than those of the first worker. Another employer, who has tried one of our blind women (forty-five years of age), says, "We are well satisfied with the woman you brought to us, as she not only does her work well, but calls out the humanitarian side of the others in her department. The girls who work with her are constantly extending courtesies to her." This person has not been able to earn much over $3.00 a week and we anticipate a more profitable line of work for her. Nevertheless, $3.00 a week among seeing people is, to my mind, better than more earned in a shop for the blind. Another example is that of a girl who has for the last six months been stringing hairpins. In her case the factory has not been sufficiently busy to give her employment full time, but she commenced working for 70 cents a day and has given perfect satisfaction to her employer. As one worker we placed in a factory had begun at twenty-three a life of dependence in a poorhouse at the expense of the state, it behooves us to search a little further before we accept the arbitrary statement that "every line of work has already been tried and that it is folly to spend money on expensive experiments." No labor union in the world can raise the slightest objection to a blind operative who, when paid by the piece, is earning more than the minimum amount required of all workers. There is no charity asked of the employer, merely that he shall test the capacity of the workman.

In the ideal industrial school toward which we fondly look, there ought to be at least fifty machines or processes available for a blind person. All possibilities, from the use of a machine requiring a certain degree of skill to the simplest processes, should be thoroughly tested. It should be the aim of such an industrial institute to train the person in the most remunerative kind of work, the person's own ability being the gauge. I fully believe that at the end of twenty years every able-bodied blind person needing industrial opportunities, between the ages of sixteen and thirty (the proportion of this group to the general population being about 1 to 4,000), can find work of some kind side by side with seeing people, if efforts are persistently made in this direction. Of course, it will take time to discover the places where such employés are welcome, but in my visits to the various factories I have seen enough automatic processes to convince me that it is merely a question of time before blind operatives become an accepted part of the great army of factory workers.

Factories for the Blind.

All over the world can be found workshops for the blind. If it was only possible to find some article requiring a large amount of hand work which could be patented and held exclusively for the blind, our problem would be solved. At the present time we are experimenting with the "Wundermop" and track broom. Both of these articles were invented by a totally blind man and we are at the present time endeavoring to hold the right of manufacture for the blind. He has constructed and arranged all the machinery at the experiment station necessary for the manufacture of the mops and brooms with the exception of the sewing machine. Each process is quite simple in itself, and as the demand for these articles increases we can employ both men and women of average ability. The mop-makers receive an average of $6.50 per week, which will be increased as soon as warranted by the sales. The moment the mop department pays all its expenses, including heat, light, rent, bookkeeper's services, etc., it will be transferred to a rented building and allowed to grow like any other ordinary factory. In the three months we have been manufacturing this mop at the experiment station all the orders have been taken by a blind agent and amount to $514.25. So far as it is possible, it is our desire to utilize blind salesmen, and anyone reading this article who knows or can find out the names of blind men or women in their own locality who have the faculty of acting as agents, would confer a direct favor upon the blind as a whole if they would communicate with the experiment station, Boston, Mass. Legitimate selling is one of the best lines of work for the blind, and if we can only find some article which can be controlled for them; there will be little need of large state appropriations for pensions or subsidized workshops.

Outside Life of the Workers.

The experiment station workers of all departments board in private families or live at home. One of the girls, who is totally blind, is taken to and from the elevated station near her home night and morning. She then crosses Boston alone, by means of elevated, subway and surface cars. She has to transfer at one of the underground stations, but never fails to have the hearty assistance of the trainmen. We encourage all to travel without guide. One young woman had never been in the habit of going alone outside of her house. To-day she feels that her daily unguided walk is a greater accomplishment than weaving. Two of our workers require guides, and for these we utilize two children from a neighboring school. It is unneeessary to say that all are benefited by their daily walk and normal life. Three season tickets to the Boston Symphony concerts and occasional theater tickets are greatly appreciated.

The next actual experiment which we should like to try is with poultry. It has long been one of my firmest convictions that both men and women—and there are many of them—who have partial vision, could be trained to do a great deal about a farm. If the reader asks, "What are you going to try next? I reply, "Anything you suggest which seems to promise success."

Blind men and women—like normal seeing persons—if helped in time, are industrious, but sorely need the opportunity to make use of their industry; given the opportunity they may become independent. Hence our motto—"Industry, Opportunity, Independence."

Library Work for the Blind

Edward E. Allen

Principal Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind

When the blind boy Leseur, Valentin Haüy's first pupil, ran to his master with a piece of paper on which the letter *o* had been accidentally embossed, crying, "Sir, I can feel it; it is the letter *o*!" then was put into the master mind of that great man the idea he had been groping for for thirteen years—how to give the blind matter they could read themselves. From that day, in 1784, the real education of the blind dates. Dr. Howe, too, in Boston and Mr. Friedlander in Philadelphia, fifty years later, founded their little schools upon tangible print. In the days when pupils were constantly exhibited to raise money, that which accomplished more than any amount of talking and writing about the needs of the sightless was their reading with their fingers. The education of the blind, then, was made possible by tangible print and was spread through its instrumentality.

Since those days the printing-presses have never rested. Nowhere else in the world are the blind so well provided with embossed books as in this country. Do you realize that the American Printing House for the Blind at Louisville, has in its storerooms and vaults to-day 2,407 boxes of stereotyped plates; that it has on hand 3,500 volumes of unbound books and 1,000 pamphlets; that it lists for sale 937 titles, which with other American printing offiees listing 386 makes, in all, 1,323 different books and pamphlets obtainable from embossed plates and so capable of indefinite multiplication? How many of these books may be found distributed in our 39 schools, 12 employment institutions and 40 publie and other libraries and in private families I have no way of knowing, but I do not deem 110,000 too large an estimate of their number.[1]

This really large array of books was manufactured either for or by the schools whose function is the education of the blind of school age. School children must have books; modern education is based upon the ability to read. There are textbooks for study; there are books for collateral reading; then there are books for relaxation and amusement, and others, again, for exhortation and contemplation. Reading in all these classes the schools have supplied as fast as practieable. Though the reading habit is desirable for everybody it is particularly so for any who are at all shut in. Those who cannot see are shut in, and no effort should be spared whieh will incite them to read much. There is nothing so broadening, so correcting, so fortifying, nay, so saving.

For school pupils I have proved to my own satisfaetion that, given a type easily felt and well printed, books in variety and of such kind as young people want, together with the artificial spurs of keeping up an interest in the library and of a few compulsory reading periods, 100 per cent can be made to read with pleasure to themselves.

Libraries as Centers of Circulation.

But outside the schools, where 15/16 of the blind are, how are we to approach adequate library use there? This is another story and one more difficult of realization. The institutions, though they have long been lending books to former pupils and to others who ask for them, are not any more considered the only or even the best distribution centers; for departments for the blind in eonnection with public libraries to the number of forty are already in more or less active existence. Enthusiastie librarians are in charge of them and no stone is left unturned to extend their usefulness. Naturally, with the coming of the free mailing concession, that which was formerly the chief bar to circulation, the problem of book transportation, has been solved. There are even now books enough obtainable to increase this work a hundredfold and their variety is already considerable. People who make publie clamor of the poverty of embossed literature do not know what they are talking about. "Yes," you may say, "but most of these books are text books." Not so; of the 1,323 different embossed books above referred to, 957, or nearly three-fourths, are what may be termed general literature. That which the departments for the blind in public libra-

[1] The report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1902 gives 105,804 in the libraries of the schools alone.

ries most need to do, then, is to obtain copies of books already published. According to the last report of the American Printing House sixteen of these libraries during the year ending June 30, 1905, spent there $1,859.64 for books. While this is not much, still it indicates the growth of the movement. There are other indications: within a few months a paper on the subject was read at a convention of librarians in Atlantic City, N. J.; in the monthly organ, *Public Libraries* for April, 1904, there is an article of fifteen pages on *Literature for the Blind,* including detailed accounts of the work of eighteen departments of embossed books in connection with public libraries. In the editorial which follows occur these words:

> The schools for the blind are public institutions, for the most part, and it would seem that having given the blind person the first privilege of learning to read, the second, of furnishing at least a center where they may continue to enjoy the power of books, would naturally follow as a part of the duty of public libraries.

This does follow. But, just as in schools it is not enough simply to get together the books, so in general library work for the blind, in order that it may be successfully conducted, the conditions for circulation must be made favorable. The first essential condition is again attractive books in variety, printed in the types which the adults wish and as they prefer them to be embossed; the second, the diffusion of the information that these books may be borrowed without expense to the borrower; the third, a recognition of the fact by the library authorities that most of the books will have to be sent to the readers; and the fourth, that the work will, of necessity, employ visiting teachers.

The Different Types.

As to embossed types there are but four needing attention in America—the Boston line type, the Moon system, the New York Point and the American Braille. All that need be said of the line type is that those who learn to read it well when young generally prefer it to any other. This is because it is pleasant to the touch and is unvarying in spelling; but it is, unquestionably, the least tangible of the systems and for this reason will probably not endure. Nevertheless, it is represented by a choice, though small, list of books, and no library should hesitate to obtain some of them. Next, by contrast, Moon's system is, by all odds, the most readily learned and, because it is so, it is not only holding its own, but is growing in use and is destined to survive. Schools and school children do not need it, but the majority of the adult blind do, as proved by the experience of some eighty home-teaching societies in Great Britain, by the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society, which has been in existence since 1882, by the four traveling teachers sent out by Massachusetts and the two by Rhode Island, and by the field officer supported by the Philadelphia school.

According to recent statistics, the average age of the blind in Great Britain and Ireland is forty-nine years, and the average age of their becoming blind is thirty-one.[1] The same is probably true of the blind of this country. We know that great numbers of the adult blind are old and decrepit; that many have lost all ambition and have neither the self-confidence nor the patience to learn to read with the fingers unless urged and helped. If they read at all they must begin with the Moon books, and most of them will need no other. The variety of literature in this system is not yet equal to that in either of the other systems; but the old complaint that all Moon books are religious is no longer justified by fact; such novels as *John Halifax Gentleman* and *Ivanhoe* are now appearing in this type. A monthly known as *The Moon Magazine* is announced for 1906; in fact, the advanced first number is already out. In the year 1904 by far the largest circulation of embossed books from the Philadelphia Free Library was in the Moon system, or 4,245 volumes out of a total circulation of 5,284.

If the Moon system is required for the majority of adults, so a dotted or point system is needed for the young and the able-bodied. The schools could no more dispense with it than the city of New York, for example, could dispense with its system of rapid transit. A point sys-

[1] Meldrum's "Light on Dark Paths," p. 155. Edinburgh, 1891.

tem is not only writable but, if well and uniformly printed, is highly tangible; in fact, it can be read more rapidly than any other. Its invention in 1829, by Louis Braille, marks the second great epoch in the history of the education of the blind. There are two point systems in our land, the New York point and the American Braille, each used in prominent schools and each represented in a splendid list of books. Any blind person who has spent two months in acquiring the ability to read in one of these systems can, by applying himself for two hours, learn to read in the other. Hence, any library pretending to be representative and wishing to increase its usefulness will possess books in both point systems, and so double its variety of reading matter. Of course, areas where New York point predominates will give preference to New York point books; so territory preferring American Braille point should be supplied first with American Braille books.

Essentials of Printing for the Blind.

Not that I believe both systems will survive, I cannot think that the duplication of books in systems so nearly alike need go on much longer—one of these will either prevail over the other, or else some third system will take the place of both. I venture to predict, however, that the point system of the future will embody the following principles:

1. Ease of writability alike by young and old;
2. Facility of correction;
3. Greatest number of possible characters within a practical letter base;
4. Possibility of reading the maximum length of time without fatigue to the finger;
5. The use of full spelling, of capitals, punctuation marks and all signs required in printed books, making embossed books models for written work done with slate and stylus.

Anyone really conversant with the subject will perceive, I think, the bearing of these propositions and admit their force, except possibly that referring to full spelling in printed books; and I believe upon due consideration anyone of open mind will be willing to admit the force of that proposition also. To be able to use contractions and special abbreviations in writing is to be able to save time, labor and paper—a sufficiently important possibility. Contractions are, therefore, proper in written work and an important adjunct to it. In printed books the only item gained by contracted spelling is space or paper, but the mental labor of the reader is increased. A facile reader, whether using eyes or fingers, does not read by characters singly; he reads by words and context. Now, any change in the usual feeling of a word, any departure from the customary look of it, requires additional thought, causing a slight hesitation, and so introduces an element of loss. As a matter of fact, by far the best and most facile readers of Braille with whom I am acquainted read most rapidly in books printed with unabbreviated spelling, and these read along as fast and as well as anybody. Dr. Javal, in his recent book, *On Becoming Blind,* admits that the reader gains nothing by contractions, his exact words being: "for reading, experience demonstrates that the increase of speed is nil." He even declares that another blind man, M. de Menieux, librarian of the Association Valentin Haüy, can read at the rate of about two hundred words a minute, and that this gentleman agrees with his colleagues in saying that the reading of short form is much less rapid than of Braille in full. Now, the mass of the adult blind who have once read with their eyes demand that their fingers shall meet with the same unabbreviated spelling. Moon's system has the advantage of full spelling; the teachers of the home-teaching societies assure me that their adult pupils, having only the twenty-six characters to feel, feel them ever so much more readily and hopefully than though they had to stop to commit and decipher characters not represented in common print. And these teachers tell me, too, that their adult pupils of the Braille not only prefer the books printed in full, but generally refuse to make use of any other until driven to do so in order to keep supplied with reading matter. Teachers of the young blind are more and more realizing the importance of making school books models of good English, as was shown at a recent convention of instructors of the blind, where several

superintendents of schools using the New York point asked for books printed in full, saying that if they could not get them printed they would use the Braille books which are so printed.

Books in two systems, then, will always be needed—a point system for the young and the able-bodied, and the Moon system for all the rest of the 64,763 blind people in the United States who by any possibility can be induced to read. It is interesting to know and remember that the originators of these two embossed prints were blind men.

The Task of Adequate Circulation.

Now, as to the classes of books desired by adult readers, the conditions under which the work has been conducted so far are not such as to make statistics of circulation of great value. Such as they are, however, they indicate the following order of preference: fiction, history and biography, general literature including poetry, and religion—religion being strong because adults read the Moon books, most of which treat of religious subjects. Public traveling and circulating libraries for the use of the blind must, therefore, give preference to books in these classes.

I have said that library work for the blind is growing rapidly. But, unfortunately, it is not being started everywhere or even being conducted as I should prefer to see it: when it is done upon the charitable or sentimental basis it is, to my mind, done wrongly and may do much harm. The blind of any community have the same right to a proportionate amount of free reading matter as have other citizens of the community. Then let us say so politely to the proper authorities and have the books obtained. If the desired readers will neither fetch away books from the libraries, nor send friends for them in sufficient numbers to justify the outlay for these special departments, the library authorities must, upon request, send out the books to the readers; and this work the free franking privilege makes possible and practicable.[1] Lending libraries for the blind must become sending libraries. But even this feature is insufficient: each library will have to employ one or more teachers to go to the blind in their homes to teach them to read. Home-teaching work is by far the most effective agency to increase the number of readers and the consequent circulation of books. Further, I consider such work a concession to the blind that is alike inoffensive to them and just to all. Without its aid the work as a whole will not grow with the class that needs its solacing influence most. It is a good employment for the blind themselves; they make, in fact, the very best teachers of embossed reading. The states of Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Pennsylvania have already contributed public funds for this very purpose. Here is a field of labor open to our people which I, for one, expect to see enlarged.

I am in close touch with several of the teachers of the Home-teaching Societies and they all corroborate the testimony of Mr. Moore of Philadelphia, one of the longest in the work and one of the most successful, who, when I recently asked, "Do you find it hard to get the aged blind to read?" replied, "Yes, oh, yes! They say, 'I am too old to learn and too nervous; it is no use; I couldn't do it.' But if I can persuade them to put their fingers on the Moon card, or even the Giant Moon, they often find that they can feel it, and when they perceive the similarity of the characters to print letters they become interested and learn readily—that is, in a few days." "Are they grateful?" I asked. "Are they glad to be able to read again?" and he replied, "Words cannot express their gratitude to me for what being able again to read means to them."

Library work for the blind, then, is as just and proper as it is wise and necessary. Our state schools cannot alone perform it, much less a single library center for the whole country. This fact is recognized in the recent large increase in the number of public libraries which keep embossed books and from which these may be received without delay. It is repositories of books that are wanted, not special reading rooms: the blind, even more than most people, prefer to read at home. Every means must be taken to advertise the fact

[1] Strongly made "telescope" shipping cases of canvas, as used at the library of the Employment Institution for the Blind, Saginaw, Michigan, will be found ke serviceable and economical

that the books are available and that they will be sent upon request and may be returned without expense to anyone. Lists of the books should be published and alphabet-cards carried to the would-be readers by special visiting teachers paid out of the library fund. This is not charity: it is simply justice. There is in every community missionary zeal seeking an outlet. This may be set to work writing out single volumes in point print for the blind and so increasing the variety of reading matter for them. The blind of England benefit greatly from such means. This is better and more practical service than getting them in to be read aloud to. The reading of embossed books benefits the blind more than we who have eyes know anything about: except work, it is their chief resource. Then let the good work grow, as grow it must and will.

Bureaus for Tickets for the Blind

Winifred Holt

Secretary of the New York State Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind

Some years ago my sister and I had the privilege of being near some blind boys at a concert. Their evident delight in the music doubled our pleasure. The house was poorly filled. The empty seats, the blind boys' great enjoyment and the thought of the army of blind who rarely, if ever, have the satisfaction of going to an entertainment, led to the simple question: Why should not the blind who are fit to appear in public, but who are too poor to afford such pleasures, have in every community the advantage of using unsold tickets for concerts, etc.? The struggle of the blind for self-support is very severe at best. They rarely make money enough to afford tickets for an artistic or intellectual entertainment.

This idea led to the founding of ticket bureaus for the free distribution of tickets to blind people in New York, Philadelphia and London. From one bureau over two thousand tickets have been given out. The desire to secure them has had far-reaching results. Owing to the intellectual interest awakened, some blind have learned to read. One young musician, whose sole protector was a drunken father who had pawned his son's mandolin for drink, applied for concert tickets at the bureau. On account of his slovenly appearance he was refused; but after heroic efforts to rehabilitate himself he received tickets for an oratorio. He soon applied at the library for membership, learned to read, and with his now recovered mandolin is on the road to a self-respecting, self-supporting life.

The recipients of tickets include many self-supporting individuals, teachers, musicians, tuners, upholsterers, etc., who eagerly avail themselves of the privileges offered. The poorest will make sacrifices to save carfares and to buy boot-blacking to add luster to their appearance at the entertainments. Many letters of appreciation show that the sightless enjoy the best theatrical performances as well as music.

The educational side of this scheme has been so evident that the New York public library has offered to carry on the work there. It was, however, found practicable to keep the ticket bureau, which was the nucleus from which the New York State Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind sprang, as a vital part of the new organization. The first bureau, during its three years' activity, has proved its value as a feasible, useful and economical way to bring "light into darkness,"—to convert what would often be waste matter into pleasure productive of educational value, to a very appreciative class, whose affliction renders them at once peculiarly devoid of the ordinary pleasures of life, and at the same time peculiarly appreciative of and keenly alive to the delights which they can receive through sound. The simplicity of the plan makes it a reasonable hope that it will be generally adopted in large and small towns, in fact wherever there are entertainments and blind people who cannot afford to go to them.

A brief statement of the methods of the original bureau may be of value in starting others. The list of blind persons is classified according to their intelligence.

tastes, appearance and means. Emphasis should be laid on the necessity of every blind applicant being personally known at the bureau, and if possible the guide who usually accompanies him. There should be no exception to the rule requiring neatness and good manners from everyone on the lists. Tickets which would not otherwise be used are sent by managers, subscribers and purchasers to the bureau as long before performances as possible. They are usually distributed by post, in groups of two, for a blind person and guide. Tickets which cannot be used are not transferable and must be returned by the next post. Any inexcusable lapse from these rules should result in the removal of the delinquent's name from the books. A sub-committee of twelve intelligent blind friends of the ticket bureau has been of the greatest help. It has met from time to time at the bureau and by suggestions has aided the broadening of its work. The members have called attention of the bureau to many previously unknown blind people. The expenses of the bureau have been for secretary work, printing and postage.[1]

The plan is being carried out as part of the work of the Civic Club in Philadelphia. This autumn American organizers founded a bureau for tickets for the blind in London, of which the Baroness Rosenkrantz is secretary. James Bryce and other friends of philanthropic work are on the committee of this first English ticket bureau. It is proposed to start a similar one in Manchester, England.

The value of the scheme in establishing friendly relations between the majority of us whose minds are distracted by the whirling sights of our American life and those thoughtful people who are forced in their darkness to see with the mind's eye only, cannot be overestimated. Helen Keller said the other day, "To be blind is to see the bright side of life." Will not everyone who reads this try to make her point of view possible for the less fortunate blind?

The Industrial Viewpoint

CONDUCTED BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

Mills of the Gods Grind All Alike.

Organized labor shares with commercial interests the disgrace and loss inflicted by those who in the name of either, ignore and violate the public sense of justice and the American demand for fair play. While the labor officials who do so are as comparatively few in number as those employers or corporations who thus shame the rank and file of their business associates, yet their treason seems more disastrous to the cause of labor than that of their co-conspirators is to commercial interests. This is one of many evidences that the labor movement is more dependent upon the moral sense of the whole community for any real success. However this fact may be denied by those who for their own ends are moved to defy both the real interests of labor and of public opinion, it nevertheless has a way of reasserting itself surely, if more slowly here than elsewhere. The response in labor circles to evidence of injustice and corruption comes more slowly from the rank and file than the interests of their movement, and the community also, demand. But it may surely be counted upon to right things up effectively, later if not sooner. Moreover, when the house-cleaning comes it is likely to be quite as thorough and permanent in any given labor interest as in any branch of business. If this does not seem to be the fact, we are quickly reassured that it is, simply by keeping our eyes upon the ebb and flow of corruption and reform as they parallel each other in both business and labor circles.

Chicago presents just such a parallel. For several years a three-headed bank has been run by one man largely upon capital furnished by the collusion of politicians in

[1] Any further details as to the experience of the original Ticket Bureau will be gladly furnished by its secretary, 44 East Seventy-eighth street, New York.

both parties who controlled the deposit of public funds. Everyone knew it to be political banking of very questionable nature, and the more suspicious for being so strictly bi-partisan. Nevertheless it was countenanced by practically all business interests. Of course, the other banks could not do otherwise so long as they had to do business with it. Even after the government examiners discovered the rottenness of its management by a simultaneous examination of the securities claimed by each of the three banks belonging to this aforesaid one man, every attempt was made to whitewash him and his fellow conspirators. This attempt went so far as to pass the shadow of unjust suspicion upon legitimate banking, when a high official of the national government, evidently moved more by political policy than by business principles, declared this bank to have done nothing unusual. While the "clearing house committee" representing all the other banks, strongly backed by the late Marshall Field, had enough self-respect and public spirit to assure the depositors against loss, the verdict of public opinion against bi-partisan banking found its explicit and decisive utterance not only through a part of the press but also in overwhelming private expressions of personal opinion. And notwithstanding the reluctance and reserve in public expression, the conviction is widespread and profound that no single event in the progress of civic reform in Chicago through the past ten years has gone deeper to the bottom or gives better assurance of substantial success than the so-called "failure" of this bi-partisan bank.

During this same period a conspiracy as illegitimate to labor as the other was to banking has been in progress. Partly for commercial and partly for political purposes it sought to control the management of certain unions, especially that of the Chicago Federation of Labor. From intimidating threats these rougher leaders proceeded to blows. So cowardly was their secret conspiracy and so sudden and deadly the violence of their personal attack that, individually, men were afraid of them. Fear and the pride of organization which here as well as elsewhere seeks to hide scandal, kept both the officials and the rank and file of the unions from aggressive utterance and action. The terrorism finally issued in bold attempts to kill leaders and members who stood in the way of the conspiracy. At last a hired assassin and the union officials who hired him were convicted by a fearless jury and sentenced by the court to long terms of imprisonment. Then, far too late to save the credit of organized labor, but better late than never, individual labor men began to voice the ratification given to the verdict by the rank and file of the unions. Action swiftly followed this verdict of the law and public opinion.

A third attempt was made by the honest majority in the Chicago Federation of Labor to hold the election of officers which had twice been frustrated by violence. Under the protection of one hundred policemen the vote was safely and fairly taken, and of course resulted in the defeat of the vicious and criminally led minority.

Now that the struggle is over the expression of labor opinion not only personally but through the press is quite as pronounced and vigorous in defense of the right and denunciation of the wrong, as it was in the somewhat parallel scandal in banking circles. It is only fair, therefore, to judge organized labor by the same standards and the same conditions under which commercial, insurance, industrial or political organizations are judged. The same kinds of men act about alike here as there. They are swept by the same motives into the prevalent movement. It is wise as well as just to be reminded that "we are all a job lot, but some of us are jobber."

Self-sentenced to Social Ostracism.

Social ostracism is happily coming to be that penalty for commercial and political misdeeds which wrong-doers who have personal aspirations, fear more than they do the sentences of the courts. With a press honest and free enough to be the spokesman of the jury of public opinion, these treasonable criminals may well feel more certain of its verdict than that of the legal jury which they so often succeed in escaping. The verdict which the Chicago public returned against its late traction magnate was neither retracted nor revised at his death. Commercial achievement and gifts to public institutions did not palliate

or atone for vicious wrong. The credit due for what he did that was worth doing was not withheld. But nothing he did condoned his undoing of the law and loyalty to it. Nothing he gave offset what he was. Nothing the community received from him ever made it possible for the community to receive him into its confidence and fellowship. Socially, he lived as he died, alone or with his kind. Commercially a factor to be reckoned with both in this country and abroad, he was virtually ostracized personally. When driven from Chicago by his own intolerable record, he sought shelter behind the strict libel law of England. In London he fought off, almost with pathetic desperation, any "libelous" allusion to his American record. Vigilantly he watched against any public reference to it. The very mild intimation that there was such a record was menaced vigorously and immediately with a libel suit.

Within a few hours after a well-informed man ventured to warn the public that Mr. Yerkes might try to repeat in London his Chicago traction policy, an explanation was demanded as to what he meant. If any reflection was intended he was roundly warned that he would be called to answer for it in court as a defendant in a libel suit.

Meanwhile the London county council stood silently but vigilantly on guard, in full possession of the facts, to safeguard the public interests from an aggression which was never attempted, either for this reason or, let us hope, for a better one. The American public, however it is supposed to worship success, has unmistakably and irrevocably registered its judgment upon such a career in the laconic verdict of "failure."

Re-discovering the Public.

The eastern insurance gentry have re-discovered the public. The most amazing exposure of all their devious ways is that of their own amazement at the universal reprobation of their dishonesty. Like so many others who abandon common honesty, they seem surprised to be reminded that honesty is common. They really left it so far behind that they forgot its existence, or affected to. Some of them spoke and acted as though they thought the whole world was just like them, or that everybody would be who had the chance.

But the verdict returned against them was indeed alarmingly unhesitating. It was rudely so without respect to persons. It addressed them just as though they were a docketful of common thieves in conspiracy with each other to rob and receive stolen goods. It even took for granted that they were unworthy of private trust or public office, as the law declares convicted criminals to be. The sting of the verdict against them is their social, commercial and office-holding disfranchisement.

Thus to those who think there is no such thing as the public, or that the opinion of the public, if it has any, must be just like their own, there comes always and everywhere, sooner or later, just such a rude awakening. For the public has a way all its own of re-discovering itself, not only to those who ignore it, but to itself. If the public will stay self-discovered, fewer will be found to lapse from their consciousness of its existence or their fear of its verdict.

The Question of Unionism and Efficiency Again.

The printer's strike affords some interesting sidelights on the matter of efficiency and the demand heard from all quarters that the union membership card shall stand as the credentials of a competent man. We are accustomed to hear the dictum from wise men that if such were the case no one would object to unionism, nor to the principle of the trade agreement—even the closed shop—provided the union placed no obstacle in the way of any efficient man who wished to join.

To the observer who has always considered the typographical union the one pre-eminently strong in its advocacy of this very position regarding efficiency, it came as a surprise to hear a union printer declare that of the 400 men still on strike in Chicago, a large proportion were incompetents who in times of peace would be the last to find work under a rising demand, and the first to be dropped from employment upon a slackening of the trade.

Such a condition seemed hard to explain in the face of the repeated action of the union in upholding its standards of

workmanship. An instance may be cited in the appeal of a member of a local union to the convention of the International Typographical Union held in St. Louis some fifteen months ago. The member in question had been discharged by a foreman who declared him incompetent. He appealed to his local union authorities, who refused to take any action looking toward his reinstatement. He carried his case to the international convention, which promptly upheld the foreman. Many similar instances might be noted. Moreover, one of the contentions of the union leaders in the present strike has been that the employers would have difficulty in finding any considerable number of skilled workmen outside the union ranks.

It may be taken for granted that of the men who struck in Chicago, many of the best workmen have found work with establishments whose shops are conducted in accordance with the union agreement. "We are compelled to keep these incompetents in the union," declared a member. "We do not like to have them in the organization, but we cannot help ourselves." And then he added, "Its sort of tough for us who are at work to pay ten per cent of our wages into the strike fund when we know that it goes in strike benefits to these men whom—many of them—we ourselves would not wish to employ were we running a shop. But we've got to do it to protect ourselves. The very fact that our organization contains so large a proportion of the skilled printers drives the employers who are fighting the union to renew their shop crews from the least skilled in the craft. Consequently, in order to make our strike effective, we have to take these men into our membership. When the strike is over I suppose we shall have to stand criticism on the score that our union card does not in every case indicate efficiency of the workman. But what can we do? We cannot suddenly throw out of the organization all of these less competent men. They were taken in under the stress of strike conditions. Their admittance was a war measure forced upon us by the employers themselves."

Perplexing indeed is the task of reconciling theories with facts. Every dictate of reason upholds the contention that the unions must stand for efficiency. Yet the foregoing statement of actual conditions shows the interplay of forces which determines just how far theories may be upset by real exigencies in the industrial struggle. It would seem to be the best union policy to stand unreservedly and always for the proposition that the holder of every union card is an efficient workman. Yet the present strike shows how the union which has tried to maintain that position finds it for the present untenable.

Enter: Labor to Politics.

The rise of the labor representation in the English Parliament from a half dozen members to a delegation that will number about fifty is the shadow of coming events, cast not far before their advent to our American political arena. In England the strength of the "laborites" is conceded to be even stronger than their election successes. In all but a few instances the labor candidate came out on top of the poll wherever he ran together with a Liberal for "double membered" constituency. In one big north country district a labor candidate who was put up only three days in advance easily carried the election against a Liberal. The aim of these candidates and constituencies is industrial more than political. It is to restore trade unionism to the position it held before the Taff Vale decision in the House of Lords, which made all the funds of a union liable in a suit at law for damage due to the deed of any of its members. Under the extraordinary leadership of John Burns, which is conceded by former Prime Minister Balfour to be one of the principal causes of the overwhelming Conservative defeat, the labor party in Parliament may be expected not only to promote effectively the interests of its own constituency, but also, when they have thus established themselves, to take a strong hand in the fiscal and social legislation for the empire.

Anticipatory of similar developments rapidly coming to focus in the United States, John Mitchell's significant utterance before the United Mine Workers' convention may be cited:

> Then I wish to use myself as an illustration of the benefit that would accrue to trades unions if their chief officers were permitted—yea, encouraged—to seek and hold legislative offices. I would make a dis-

tinction between offices of purely political or executive significance and positions in which legislation can be originated and carried to successful issues.

Thus, would I not have more influence as a member of congress if I were president of your union than if I were merely a private citizen? [Cries of "Yes! Yes!"]

The history of trades unionism in England for the last twenty years show that they have taken care to elect their chief officers to seats in Parliament and to maintain them in their positions. And the good they have been able thus to accomplish is incalculable.

There is no political office in the United States that I would resign the presidency of the United Mine Workers of America to accept.

This declaration of Mr. Mitchell's was received with the wildest enthusiasm by the entire convention, whose conservatism however was established by the overwhelming votes and enthusiasm with which they supported their president in his bold and uncompromising attack upon the radical Western Federation of Miners when its representatives made their onslaught upon him.

When this movement gets under headway in America we will recognize Keir Hardie's claim to be as true here as it is in England that it is "the beginning of a political movement that will remodel political parties." Our candid press will not be long in recognizing with the London *Times* "a thoroughly concerted effort to obtain for labor direct and specific representation proportioned to its numerical strength and a third party which will be a force to reckon with, as it has distinctly defined aims, unity and little faith in ordinary politicians." What these distinct aims are, Keir Hardie has let all Britain know. He divides labor's demand into two categories—the fundamental and the merely desirable. In the former he places legislation protecting union funds, the recognition of the right to peaceful picketing, and the establishment of labor colonies for the unemployed at the expense of the state. Free meals for hungry school children and woman suffrage are also among the urgent reforms. The secularization of the schools, in the sense that religious instruction should not be imposed upon teachers and pupils as a duty, is among the desirable but not imperative demands of the labor party.

Here in America one or two of these demands may seem to be radical. If so this program of trade unionism will prove itself to be the conservatism of labor politics when contrasted with the radicalism of Socialism. Between the compact, enthusiastic, clearly defined and rapidly growing Socialist party and the still largely preponderant trade union political movement, city after city and state after state is likely soon to be forced to choose. Balanced by the ever-present "second sober thought" of American workingmen, their advent into our political action is to be welcomed and not feared. The industrial issues upon which they will be elected are as legitimate and bear as closely upon the interests of great masses of people as any questions of the tariff or taxation. It will mean a new political intelligence and the rise of a still higher and more loyal civic and national patriotism among the masses of the American electorate. Instead of rising to object, representatives of "the classes" who are moved to do so should join to educate their masters—the majorities.

The Miners' Convention.

Few, if any labor convention during 1906 will assume the importance of that which President Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers of America, called together in Indianapolis on January 16. Its work will have far-reaching results East and West—in the East because of the impending expiration of the period of the award of the Anthracite Commission; in the West because of the conference with the bituminous operators which will immediately follow the convention.

Twelve hundred delegates, the largest number yet, have been in attendance. Three hundred came from the southwest, where three years ago there were only fifty; the delegation from the anthracite region was doubled. "From British Columbia to Texas, from Alabama to Michigan, from Delaware to the Colorado," says the *United Mine Workers' Journal,* "the earnest and faithful work of the officials was apparent on all sides in increased membership, in enthusiasm and in determination to make this convention mark an epoch in the history of the organization."

The report of President Mitchell indi-

cates the growth in membership. They bear witness to the wonderful organizing ability of this man, of whom Governor Hanly, of Indiana, in his address of welcome, declared that "he has not only served you with marvelous zeal and unusual intelligence, but he has served all the people of all the nation and has earned the right to stand among statesmen and publicists anywhere and any time." The average paid up membership in 1897 was 9,731; in 1901 it reached 198,024; 1902 saw a decrease of 22,657 to 175,376, which rose to 247,240 in 1903. This year the figure has reached the great total of 267,331. In other words, according to customary methods of calculating population, this convention will take action directly affecting the living conditions of 1,000,000 people, to say nothing of its effect upon the numbers of operators and consumers.

After discussing minor strikes of the year, Mr. Mitchell took up directly to the anthracite field, told of his organizing tour and quoted statistics upon the per cent of increase in wages in accordance with the sliding scale ordained by the Anthracite Commission, based upon the market price of coal. He reported upon the action of the Shamokin convention of the anthracite districts in December, which recommended the appointment of a committee composed of the officers in those districts to confer with the operators for the purpose of formulating an agreement to cover "wages, hours of labor and other conditions of employment" to be effective after April 1, the date of expiration of the Anthracite Commission award. This agreement is to be ratified by a convention of anthracite miners at a date prior to April 1.

Regarding child labor, Mr. Mitchell said:

> We should re-double our efforts to have legislation enacted for the protection of our children, and in addition thereto, we should seek the co-operation of our employers in this matter. There is no good reason why a clause should not be incorporated in our joint agreements, providing that no boy who is less than fourteen or sixteen years of age shall be permitted to work in or around the mine, and I ask the delegates to this convention to give this proposition their earnest consideration.

Progress of the Printers' Strike.

The point of most strenuous conflict in the strike of the Typographical Union—Chicago—has not been affected very much by the opening of the struggle in New York. The lengths to which the employers have been put to secure competent non-union men is well indicated by the fact that even in Chicago, where it is known that the local employers have sought out every available non-union compositor in the city and whole surrounding region. Some of the New York firms in the Typothetæ have seen fit to insert display advertisements in daily papers announcing their desire for competent non-union compositors and pressmen, the rate of wages they will pay and their willingness to furnish transportation from Chicago to New York.

The number of men on strike in Chicago has decreased from the first of the year, some of the large independent printing establishments having signed the eight-hour contract. All indications point to a complete victory for the union except in the case of twelve or fourteen concerns which have been the backbone of the local Typothetæ organization. The latter are getting along with non-union forces, the real efficiency of which, however, is open to serious question. No doubt the struggle with these few firms will last a long time because of their large power and financial backing.

The boycott, long abused as a union weapon, has come into "respectable" use by an element in the business community which has taken a hand in the printers' contest, because of their hostile predilections to all unions. At least one large employer, who formerly stood with the Typothetæ, but who has signed the union agreement, has suffered the loss of some business from customers who want to see the unions "smashed." A suggestion of a general movement along this line has come from President D. M. Parry, of the National Association of Manufacturers, who issued a circular letter on Jan. 8. After noting the fact that the "Typographical Union forms a substantial part of the backbone of the American Federation of Labor," declaring that the higher wages brought about by shortened hours of labor will fall upon the consumer ("the cost of printing to the consumer should the union

succeed would be increased from fourteen to thirty per cent"), and asserting that the union cannot long stand the ten per cent assessment of wages, amounting to $60,000 a week, and that the employing printers can win the struggle if sustained for three months, he says: "I therefore wish to make an appeal that the members of the National Association of Manufacturers hold up the hands of the Typothetæ in every way possible. I suggest that whenever feasible you give your printing to the establishments in your respective communities that are making the fight for the open shop."

Holdomism as it Works Out.

Judge Holdom, of Chicago, on January 22 held President Wright, of the Chicago local typographical union, and one other officer guilty of contempt of court for violation of the drastic injunction order issued by the judge last November and commented upon in CHARITIES AND THE COMMONS for December 2. The sweeping terms of this order, marking an extreme, far in advance of any previous injunction issued to a labor union, warrant a brief recapitulation of its provisions. We have been accustomed to injunctions against the use of violence in strikes by union members or pickets. And few would be found to dispute the justice of such orders. The typographical union itself has gone on record time and again insisting that no violence should be countenanced on the part of unions, and that members guilty of it should receive the full penalty of the law. The Holdom decision, however, goes far beyond this attitude and declares that the use of persuasion, peaceful and not accompanied by threats, inducing a non-union workman to leave his employment for the purpose of embarrassing his employer who is resisting a strike, may be reasonably deemed an infringement of an injunction restraining strikers from interfering with the business of a firm against which the strike is directed.

Denying trial by jury, Judge Holdom has held President Wright and his fellow officer guilty of doing this. Among the specific acts that were charged are the following: That the two men maintained pickets at or near the premises of the Chicago Typothetæ offices; that they furnished funds and transportation out of the city to two employés as an inducement for them to leave their employer, and that they congregated near the places of business of the complainants and near the lodging places of the non-union employés for the purpose of compelling or inducing or soliciting the empoyés to refuse to remain at their work and preventing other men from taking their places.

Another allegation was that the two defendants had assaulted these two men the union sent out of town, when they returned to the city. The judge admitted that such an action had great provocation, inasmuch as the "bribed did not stay bribed." He did not discuss the difference between the union's "bribery" in inducing employés to leave their employer from the bribery of strikers—through high strike-breaking wages—to desert their union.

Although President Wright proved that after a non-union employé of one establishment had come to him with an offer to destroy the machinery of the establishment for a bribe, and that he (President Wright) had personally warned the proprietor of the establishment against the treachery, having nothing to do with the cowardly offer of the employé, the judge held that the action of Wright was suspicious in that he did not tell the employer the name of the traitor in his employment. Taking it all in all the injunction and the penalty under its violation[1] (against which appeals have been taken) constitute a serious menace to personal liberty which is arousing citizens of every class, and is creating still further public sentiment in favor of the union.

The New York Situation.

It is the published estimate of the New York Typothetæ that they will win their fight for the wide open shop and incidentally against the eight-hour day. It is the reiterated assertion of Typographical Union No. 6 that they will win their fight for an eight-hour day and incidentaly the reaffirmation of the closed shop. As against these two claims from the fighting lines may be quoted the statement of a union

[1] Typographical Union No. 16 was fined $1000; President Wright was fined $150 and sentenced to 30 days in jail.

leader of long standing in another industry, who, from his own experience in strikes, is inclined to think that while unionists will not gain a complete victory, they will gain a permanent eight-hour day in a sufficient number of the larger plants to make this year's strike well worth while; and the statement of the manager of an independent publishing house, outside the Typothetæ, who says that the fight is already won for the compositors.

The printers' strike in New York is one of the most remarkable contests in the history of organized labor. It has been prosecuted practically without violence; on the one hand an exceptionally high-grade body of skilled craftsmen, and on the other some of the cleanest business firms in Greater New York. There has been more cheerful lying in the bulletins issued than bitter recrimination, and unless the temper of the combatants change, the strike will end without engendering seriously strained relations in the trade. Of the 6,000 printers in New York, 1,200 went out on strike January 1. Of these the union asserts fully half are again at work. Of the 200 printing offices in the city about 70 were members of the Typothetæ, including most of the larger establishments, but not all. The four largest independent offices, not bound by the agreements of the employers' organization and without recourse to the supply of strike breakers with which the organization planned to fortify its members, granted the eight-hour day before 1905 went out and began the new year under the new agreements. Since then 33 members of the Typothetæ have given in, including the treasurer of the New York association, so that to-day *Harper's, Collier's, Puck, Judge, Munsey,* and other of the larger magazines; the American Bible Society, the *Catholic News,* the *Christian Herald,* and others of the religious press; R. G. Dun, Bullinger, Martin B. Brown, Wynkoop, Hallenbeck, Crawford Co., among the commercial houses, are running on eight-hour schedules.

Of the Typothetæ, the belligerent firms represent a range of business standing from Devinne (*The Century*) to Greene (*Town Topics*). They include the Lyon Press, Blanchard, Doubleday, Page & Co., Garrick Press, Knickerbocker Press, *McClure's,* the Methodist Book Concern (whose management has the clergymen of the denomination about its ears), the Butterick Company, etc.

One of the incidents of the strike has been the following naïve statement published as issuing from the office of the Typothetæ, and should be read with Judge Holdom's decision in mind:

> A peculiar feature of this strike is that the strikers, instead of resorting to violence, are buying off our men with free memberships in the union, with strike pay of from $12 to $15 a week without work, and in some cases with gifts of from $50 to $100 in cash and transportation home.
>
> In strikes in most other trades the man who attempts to take the place of a striker is persecuted and is usually assaulted by the strikers. This tends to arouse his fighting blood, if he has any, and, if properly protected, is more apt to cause him to stick by his new employer.
>
> In this strike, however, Typographical Union No. 6 is pursuing a much wilier course. The pickets follow up and accost the men who have taken their places in a courtly and gentlemanly way, and endeavor to point out to them by conversational methods the folly of their course, the superior advantages of unionism from their point of view and the benefits it confers. This, instead of arousing the antagonism of the newcomer, often completely disarms him, and he falls an easy victim to their blandishments.
>
> When the strike started, we hired a lot of guards to protect our men; we employed a corps of photographers to take pictures of pickets who might attack them, and engaged a number of lawyers to be on hand to prosecute the strikers who might resort to violence. All the money expended in these several directions has been wasted because of the change in tactics made by Typographical Union No. 6.

Small wonder that such confession provokes the editor of *The Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trades* to chortle in this wise:

> That's about as rich in fun-producing qualities as any address to the public ever issued. Some of the acts described are now no new thing, being simply in accordance with the usual tactics of unions that have a checkbook. But to make complaint that unionists refused to break the law as per the bosses' program—that surely is the work of the most innocent talking delegate of the Typothetæ. Indeed, he might be a union man in disguise.

Letters from an Old Public Functionary to His Nephew

No. 5.

MR. HIRAM BROWN,
Secretary Board of State Charities,
CARITON, CARITANA.

My dear Nephew:—It is time you were stirring up your county poor asylums and orphan homes. Do not neglect them because they don't seem to amount to much compared with the big state institutions. Foot them all up and they have more inmates. Especially don't ignore the back townships. If the fellows there think you only go to the large places that are easy to reach, and where there is a good dinner for you, they will be jealous. I know it is hard drudging work to visit every almshouse, jail and county orphan's home in ninety-five counties every year. But what did you expect? If you were looking for a snap you should never have taken the job. But hard work as it is, if you do it right it pays every way both for the state and for you. You can make yourself friends in every county and that is what mighty few state officials have a chance to do.

Your county seats average about twenty miles apart, just a nice day's drive. I will tell you how I used to visit such places when I was a secretary. I used to go about forty or fifty miles from the capital by rail, then hire a horse and buggy and drive through a circle of counties. I liked to reach a poor asylum about 3.30 or 4 P. M., drive up to the front door, ask the superintendent if he had room for another tramp, then put up my horse and stay all night. Then I could see the inmates get their supper, watch them go to bed, see the arrangements for sex separation, get the general style of housekeeping, then if it was summer spend the evening smoking on the porch; if winter, beside the sitting-room stove, with the superintendent, and let him tell me all his troubles. Then early to bed and up at daybreak, see the morning work, the washing, etc., the breakfast and the way the house and field work start out. Then at 9 or 10 hitch up and drive to the county seat or sometimes to the almshouse of the next county. But before I drove away I *knew* how that almshouse was kept better than by half a dozen visits during the middle of the day.

When I had to tell a superintendent to do something different, as I usually did have to do, I never told them what *I* thought they ought to do. I told them what some fellow was doing in another county 100 miles off. Sometimes I had to invent the county and the man, but that was only teaching by parables and we have a good example for that. I used to lead them on to ask me how to do things. They would often say: "Now, Mr. Brown, you see so many places, you know just what we should do." And then I would say, "Well, there is old man Smith in Prairie county. He had just such a trouble as you have and I'll tell you how he fixed it." Then on my next visit he would say: "I tried the plan you told me and it worked first-rate." Then, of course, I could use the same plan somewhere else and the next time I told the story it would not be a parable. In the course of four or five years I managed to get a good many schemes of my own in operation by that device and they never really caught on to the trick, although one or two fellows had a shrewd suspicion that I was working them. Of course whenever I could I gave them actual facts, but I never let an awkward, clumsy fact stand in my way when I was giving good advice.

You see if I had told them straight that what I was handing out was my own notion they'd hardly have tried it. They were all farmers and you know how a farmer despises book farming; they would have classed my ideas with that sort of thing. But I tell you that simple-hearted country folks, if you get right down off your perch and talk like a common man and show real interest in their worries and their troubles, take you right to their hearts. Then you can tell them the news of the world and lighten up their somewhat dreary existence a bit. They like you all the better for it. My county poor-

house superintendents used to swear by me and after the second or third visit they would begin to say that they had been looking for me, that I was a month later this year or something of that kind, and be a bit jealous that I did not show up before, especially if they saw in a newspaper that I was in an adjoining county. I made the round every year to the last one, then I missed a few counties. If you will take my advice you will make every one of your county visits, even if you have to cut some of the state visits out to do it.

I must tell you a story of one place where my advice did not work well. In fact between the superintendent and myself we killed one man. It was in Fabula County. The poorhouse had got into a horrid condition of filth and neglect. The superintendent was a lazy and corrupt politician of the lower grade. It was all so bad that the only way to treat it was to write it up fiercely in the local county papers. I did so and went to the county commissioners also, with the result that a new man was appointed and set out to do everything I told him. On my first visit I was delighted with him. Clean, honest, hardworking, intelligent and tractable—only wanted to know how. His name was Worth. He asked my opinion about bathing the inmates. I told him a full bath once a week in summer and twice a month in winter was *de riguer*. On my next visit, a year later, he said: "Mr. Brown, you know what you told me about bathing the men? Well, I did what you said and we killed one fellow."

I said: "That is too bad, how did you do it?"

He said: "Well, he was a big, fat tramp, looked like as big a man as you be." (I weighed 220 pounds then). I said to him:

"'Bill, you've got to take a bath.'

"He said: 'What! feet and all?'

"I said, 'Yes.'

"He said, 'No, I won't, why I aint taken a bath since I used to go in swimming in the creek when I was a kid.'

"'Well,' I said, 'Henry Brown, the state inspector, says every inmate must bathe and I am going to bathe you.' He kicked like a steer, but me and my man got a hold of him and stripped him. When we got him stripped I am blessed if he was as big as I am (Worth weighed 135 pounds). He had on two wammuses[1] and a jacket, three shirts, two pair of pants and a pair of overalls and between each pair he had newspapers and chaff. We filled a bushel basket with the chaff and newspapers we took off of him, and his clothes were all alive. We just took them to the furnace room and shoved them into the fire. Well, we gave him a good scrubbing. He was the dirtiest beast I ever seen. I was afraid he would take cold, so I put him on a suit of heavy wool underclothes that I had bought for a consumpted man that died afore he wore them, and I gave him the heaviest suit of clothes we had and an overcoat. But he never seemed to get warm and he just shivered and shook until we put him to bed and sent for the doctor. In three days he died of the *newmony*."

"Well," I said, "Mr. Worth I am sorry you had such bad luck. But my advice to you when you catch another fellow who has not been bathed since he was a kid is to begin at his feet the first time and gradually work upwards fifteen to eighteen inches at a spell until he gets used to it." I suppose I ought to have felt very bad. As far as I knew I had never been a party to killing a man before. Worth's woebegone countenance, and the thought of the big fellow he reduced by the act of stripping, and especially the chaff and newspaper lining to his three pair of pants, were all so excruciatingly funny that I never could feel any remorse. But whenever I gave advice on the bathing question after that I told people to be sure to make the improvements gradually.

Your affectionate

UNCLE HENRY.

[1] Wammus is colloquial in some central western state for a sleeved waistcoat or short jacket, sometimes of wool but usually of cotton jeans (a jumper).—ED.

To Country and Cottage

The Effect on Institution Children of a Change from Congregate Housing in City to Cottage Houses in the Country

R. R. Reeder
Superintendent New York Orphan Asylum, Hastings-on-Hudson

VIII[1]

When interrupted by the questions which we attempted to answer in the last number of this series, we were discussing the motives which function in the development of children. Next above the appetite incentives are those inducements which appeal to the child's sense of pride in dress, in ornaments of apparel, in his personal appearance, etc. Here, as elsewhere, we must build upon the natural instincts of the child. Children like pretty things, beautiful designs and variety in form and color.

To dress children all alike as is done in some institutions, is to ignore these natural—and when properly directed—helpful and educative impulses. To dress them not only all alike, but in ill-fitting garments of sombre colors is to force innocent, defenseless children into unnatural and ill-feeling moulds. It is to dress the child so that everyone that sees him will pity him instead of showing pleasure at his appearance. How would you like to make such an impression upon those you meet? When this is done the child loses all interest in his clothes as an individual possession. There is no feeling of ownership in them. They are not his; they belong to the institution. The girls will then tie on the first apron they come to and the boys will "swipe" any coat or pair of shoes they can find which are not too conspicuous a misfit.

The dress incentive may be handled in such a way as to function most helpfully in developing individuality, in building up a feeling of self-respect and in teaching neatness and care in one's personal appearance. With the older children it may also furnish many opportunities for lessons in domestic economy, as well as provide the strongest possible motive for the home-making industries of sewing, mending, etc. That clothes, their quality, style, fit, taste, etc., are an important interest with children no one who remembers his own childhood will for a moment doubt. To extract the educative possibilities which lie in this natural interest is one of our problems.

Nature gives variety of form and color to bird and beast and flower. The child admires and enjoys them. In buying ginghams or prints it costs no more to select pretty patterns than homely ones, and but little more to get a variety of colors than one color. But there is great significance in all these little variations to the children who wear the garments. How often you have seen older people greatly agitated and displeased upon seeing someone else with a hat or dress "just like mine." But to see fifty or a hundred others with a suit "just like mine" would mean a great loss of interest in that suit. It no longer expresses your individuality —it is common. Is there not a little of this feeling in children? Is it not perfectly natural and may it not be used in a most helpful manner in educating the child? To ignore it or to fail to build upon it will certainly repress a wholesome form of individuality as well as stupefy the natural sense of taste which is struggling for expression.

Laura, Minnie, Catherine, Lena and a half-dozen other girls of our Orphanage from thirteen to sixteen are just at present making their Sunday dresses. The goods is wool-plaid. These girls have made wash-dresses before, but this is an advanced step for them. Each girl wanted her dress made in "up-to-date" style and all spent considerable time consulting a fashion book and selecting their patterns. The two main factors involved in making a choice of designs were the child's taste and her skill as a seamstress. She must not select a pattern that she could not make. Laura selected a plaited skirt while Lena was afraid to try such a difficult pat-

[1] This is the eighth of a series of articles by Mr. Reeder based upon the experiences associated with the moving of the New York Orphan Asylum from a barracks type of institution in Manhattan to the present site overlooking the Hudson.

tern and therefore chose a plain, full-gored skirt. Minnie wants a little lace to brighten up the effect of her new waist, but is not sure that she can spare the money for it.

Catherine is making a box-plaited skirt for she is very fond of box-plaits. The same effect is carried out in making her waist, which is in the style of an "all-over lace" vest and collar, decorated with buttons and ribbon. Gertrude, who has just passed her fifteenth birthday, is a skilful little seamstress. Her new Sunday dress, now in the making, is a fifteen-gored skirt forming a plait at each seam. The waist is made with a lace V and collar trimmed with fancy gimp, sleeves with deep cuffs reaching to the elbows. A silk girdle of her own workmanship adds a finishing touch to the gown. These girls, twenty or more of them, can all make ordinary shirt waists without much trouble, and during the summer they wore duck dresses of their own make, trimmed in white. They work on their dresses at all sorts of odd times—after school hours in the afternoon, on Saturdays, and sometimes in the evening.

Thus these little maids are educating themselves, under the guidance of a skilful teacher, in one of the most practical industries of life. When they began this work it was difficult to awaken sufficient interest to carry them through the trying ordeals of a beginner's experience. But with the completion of each new garment new interest and zeal were aroused —the standard of work also rose higher and higher as experience and enthusiasm united in each new venture. At the beginning, when the girls came to the sewing room, they would gather in groups and gossip (as older "girls" do, you know, in some church sewing societies) and if one began to sew on a machine, two or three others would lean on their elbows and look on. This is now all changed. The pressure of self-interest has put strong motive into what was at the beginning a dull task. Time in the sewing room is precious. Each girl is at her own little table. If she wants to use a machine she must seek the opportunity, for the machines are in great demand and there are not enough to go round.

What shall we say of the sewing teacher that keeps girls from ten to fourteen years of age making dolls' clothes or working month after month upon a course of lesson models instead of upon their own clothes? Such blundering is simply opportunity running to waste. The important thing in training children is to find a strong, wholesome motive and then work it for all it is worth. Pedagogy is almost summed up in the one supreme requisite—proper motivation.

The advantage of such training and experience over that received by a girl apprenticed to a dressmaker is easily apparent. The apprentice is frequently kept working month after month upon a single part of a garment—not even seeing the completed whole. She may spend several weeks running errands, followed by other weeks of dreary monotony in pulling out basting threads, until she wishes she might never see another basting thread. When she has passed through this wearisome ordeal with credit she may be permitted to "do basting" for another prolonged period. And so on by the most tedious and uninteresting stages through weary years the trade is learned. The motive of the employer is economic, not pedagogical nor philanthropic. The apprentice that has learned to finish inside seams or to put the binding on a skirt is kept finishing inside seams and binding skirts for an indefinite period. Division of labor is the method of economic production and it is profitable to the employer for each apprentice to do one thing well and do it fast. Again, in a dressmaking establishment usually only the more elaborate gowns are made, while in learning to make her own clothes the girl begins with the plain simple pieces and wash-dresses of her own wardrobe, and advances steadily and rapidly to the more complex task of making such Sunday dresses as are above described.

The economic aspect of the training in sewing which the girls in this orphanage receive is a most valuable by-product. How to extract the greatest amount of wearing value from a garment after it is made is economy of a high order. A maid who was once employed in my household was unable to extract more than about sixty per cent of the economic value of the

clothing she bought because she could not cut, fit, mend or darn. She was obliged to throw away many a garment which still had in it from twenty-five to forty per cent of its original service. The ability to repair, make over or bring up to date the style of an old garment is in dress what skill in using up left-overs of the pantry is in cooking. Lack of this ability in either direction means wastefulness and want in multitudes of homes where there would otherwise be comfort and plenty.

Another by-product of the dress interest is the building up of a sense of responsibility. If the child feels no sense of personal ownership in his clothes—if his clothing is institutional rather than individual, he will give little heed to its care, will take no pride in its condition or inspection, and will not concern himself about cost or expense.

Among the boys of the Orphanage the dress interest manifests itself in a helpful manner whenever there is individual ownership of articles of clothing. Those that are earning money buy their own ties, winter caps, gloves, etc. Many of them do not like the plain institution hair-cut and never fail to have ready the necessary barber's fee to secure a hair-cut "to order." Our boys darn their own stockings, sew on buttons and make simple repairs on their own garments. This work not only has an industrial value but it makes the boys less careless in the wear and tear of their clothing than boys who assume no such responsibility.

Loose Threads in a Skein

Overheard in an Employment Bureau.—A young girl after giving her references the other day was heard to remark, on leaving the office: "You know I have to work 'cause my mother's got 'ulsters' on her eyes."—A few moments later another referred to her "reinstatement" papers with much assurance: "Oh, yes, ma'am, I got my real estate papers all right."

M. W. de H.

* * *

Augustus had lost his job. He was repenting the high and mighty attitude toward the boss that had brought this calamity to the top floor, back, right. He saw Mollie looking worn and worried, four-weeks-old Augustus wailing and losing weight day by day, and Mollie's mother, Mrs. O'Shaughnessy, mourning the day that she had left Ireland, where she had her own little house and her own little patch of potatoes.

Miss Morris, who went to visit from the Charity Organization Society, found two disconsolate women sitting beside a cold stove, but in a kitchen that shone with much polishing. She joined them, and within an hour had gained some idea of the cause of the trouble. As she was leaving Mrs. O'Shaughnessy, who was a thin, trim, nervous little Irishwoman, inquired politely, "Are you married yourself?"

Miss Morris answered "No."

"It's sensible ye are, thin," said Mrs. O'Shaughnessy; "not one thing but trouble has Mollie seen since the day she was married. If all the girls in this country were wise like you, Miss, it would be better for them. It was different in Ireland, where each family had their own little house and their own little patch of potatoes." Here her voice trailed off into tears.

With the money in her own hand to save her pride, the grandmother and the visitor went marketing to replenish a cupboard that was bare and a coal-box that was empty.

Miss Morris's investigation seemed to show that Augustus had been hasty in throwing up his job, but that there was really nothing else against him; he was learning by hard lessons the ways of a strange country. He soon got a temporary job, Mollie and the baby saw a dispensary doctor, and the collectors of rent, industrial insurance and instalment payments consented to wait for a while. Mrs. O'Shaughnessy watched the mending fortunes with thanksgivings. She continued to advise Miss Morris not to get married and protested that nothing but tribulation followed all weddings, but as the baby began to grow fat ,and as Mollie found her smiles, the old woman's words came less positively.

Finally, when Augustus had been working for a fortnight on a steady job and was providing sufficient for the day, as well as something to lessen the debts, Miss Morris made a friendly call. This time Mollie was singing the baby to sleep, the grandmother was humming to herself over some sewing, and the whole place had a prosperous air. Mrs. O'Shaughnessy had very little to say; she laughed gently once or twice, then dropped her sewing and gazed out over the neighboring house-tops. Suddenly she stood up primly, with her hands hanging at her sides, opened her mouth as if to speak, closed it quickly, and then, her real sentiments getting the better of what she considered the demands of politeness, she shot out the words: "I hope you'll get a good, quiet man who will give you all the money!"

Miss Morris chuckled to herself, as she went down the four flights of stairs, "Bless her heart, that is one ideal for a husband!" Then it occurred to her that to be able to do all the talking and spend all the money was one ideal for a wife.

M. A. L.